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ABSTRACT

Founded by the federal government in 1966 as an educational research documentation network, the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) has evolved in both scope and philosophy over the past years. This publication is a tribute to the ERIC program as it enters its fourth decade. The contents, which were chosen to chronicle the progress of educational development, focus on how the public schools, as agents of change, have adapted over time to selected societal trends. The volume presents documents dealing with four social trends that have occupied much of professional literature during the past 30 years: the increase in children and families living in poverty; the influx of children and families whose home language is not English; the "epidemic" rise in teen pregnancy and parenthood; and the widespread use of tobacco, alcohol, and other drugs by children at younger ages. The volume is divided into five sections. Each of the first four sections deals with one of the four societal trends. Each section contains an overview of the ways in which schools have responded over time to the trend in question, and highlights key elements that distinguish responses and approaches. At the heart of each section are the ERIC documents, which offer first-hand insight into how the schools have reacted, and which reflect the societal and educational mores of the times. The fifth section is a summary of the major themes. A list of additional ERIC readings pertaining to the subject areas is included. (LMI)

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## A Retrospective Look at How Schools Have Responded to Changing Societal Needs

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# BEYOND READING, WRITING, AND ARITHMETIC:

## A Retrospective Look at How Schools Have Responded to Changing Societal Needs

SECOND EDITION

*Edited by*
**Laura J. Colker, Ed. D.**
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Laura J. Colker, Ed.D.
Education Specialist, EDRS
September 1996

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# INTRODUCTION

This publication is a tribute to the ERIC program as it enters its fourth decade. To celebrate ERIC's enormous contribution in building and preserving the world's educational literature, we have chosen representative ERIC materials to chronicle the progress of our educational development.

Founded by the federal government in 1966 as an educational research documentation network, the Educational Resources Information Center—or ERIC as it is familiarly known—has evolved in both scope and philosophy over the past years.

In its inaugural year of 1966, the ERIC system included less than 2,500 abstracted and indexed documents related to research and practices in education. By the end of January 1969, the ERIC file had grown to include 18,254 documents. Today, ERIC is the world's largest repository and supplier of education related materials. At present, there are over 800,000 bibliographic records of articles and documents in the ERIC system, with an average of 1,100 new entries added monthly. ERIC has established itself as a veritable national library on education.

Concomitant with ERIC's growth has been an expansion of its user audience. In its early years, ERIC was primarily the domain of the academic researcher, who viewed the system as the best available source of information on research projects, statistical surveys, and legal statutes and opinions related to education. Still an important tool for university-based researchers, ERIC now serves many others. Teachers in public and private schools use ERIC to gather curricula on topics ranging from AIDS to zoology. Administrators use ERIC to review what is being done in other school districts and to take a look at "best practices." Students from elementary age to graduate school use ERIC to help them in writing papers and to spark their own creative ideas. Parents use ERIC to find out about current educational practices for their gifted or disabled children and to see what parents in other areas are doing to support their local schools. In short, ERIC means many things to its many users. Anyone with a need or even a curiosity can find the answer to an education-related question by consulting ERIC.

A unique feature that distinguishes it from databases in other fields is the rich variety of resources that the user can access. In addition to featuring education-related articles from over 780 journals, ERIC also contains documents, ranging in form from conference paper presentations to Congressional hearings and federally-funded project reports, Presidential speeches, brochures, and actual curricula and testing protocols.

## Showcasing ERIC

The ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS), operated by DynEDRS, Inc., is the system component of ERIC responsible for distributing microfiche and paper copies of the nearly 400,000 documents in the database, in addition to beginning digitization of documents in 1996 for electronic distribution. Recognizing the breadth and wealth of documents housed in the ERIC system, we have chosen to honor ERIC by taking a historical look at some of the many documents in the system that are of note. In 1993, a volume was published taking a look at ERIC's first 25 years. This volume represents an updating of that original publication to coincide with ERIC's 30th anniversary year. In both of these works, we have focused on how the public schools—as agents of change—have adapted over time to selected societal trends.

As the United States approaches the next millennium, all eyes are fixed on our nation's schools. As we endeavor to better our schools for tomorrow, it is crucial that we consider the lessons of the past.

## A Retrospective Look

In compiling this document, we have adhered to the generally agreed tenet that schools are reflectors of societal needs. In this regard, the educator James Monroe Hughes writes:

> The contemporary social scene....plays its dynamic part in making contemporary education what it is today and what it will become. The contemporary is, after all, only episodic; it is fleeting and changing. Each generation, in each decade, has its own particular problems, problems that appear to be crucial at the time. The problems and their solutions are inevitably related to time, place, and circumstance... Always...the schools will be influenced by such factors; they will be challenged to adjust to changes and they will be responsible for preparing oncoming citizens to solve *their* contemporary problems and to aid in social progress (*Education in America*, 1970, pp. 292-293).

Four social trends that have occupied much of the professional literature during the past 30 years have been selected for observation:

- the increase in children and families living in poverty;
- the influx of children and families whose home language is not English;

- the "epidemic" rise in teen pregnancy and parenthood; and

- the widespread use of tobacco, alcohol, and other drugs by children at increasingly earlier ages.

For each of these trends, we have taken a critical look at all of the documents in the ERIC system that address a particular topic. From the literally hundreds of thousands of related documents in the ERIC database, we have culled our choices to eight to ten documents per topic area for inclusion here. These documents are not necessarily the very best nor the most definitive ones in the system; they are, however, important because they represent trends that have been documented and can be observed.

In selecting documents for this review we picked those that fulfilled these specific needs:

- as a group, they show a continuum over time;

- as a group, they represent a wide variety of sources (for example, the selections related to how schools have responded to teenage pregnancy include a paper written by a School Board member in San Mateo, California; a paper by the School Homebound Coordinator in Lafayette (Louisiana) parish; a paper by a school counselor in Seattle, Washington; a legislative analysis by the National School Boards Association; a working paper by the Education Commission of the States; a survey report underwritten by the Ford Foundation; a study report by the Equality Center in Washington, DC; and a Digest prepared by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education);

- as a group, they reflect a variety of viewpoints (in the example above, documents represent school staff, a school board member, associations, research institutes, and a university-based clearinghouse);

- as a group, they display geographic diversity, so that the viewpoint of no one region predominates (in the same example, authors represent New England, the mid-Atlantic region, the South, the far West, the Northwest, and the Midwest); and

- individually, they describe innovations that reflect the viewpoint of schools in a particular place at a particular point in time.

In addition, the inclusion of documents for this volume was, by necessity, limited by their length. To provide continuity, we felt it important to include a number of documents relevant to each trend, thus making the size of each document an important consideration. In addition, by further deciding that to maintain integrity it would be preferable to reprint documents in their entirety rather than to abstract them or include only a chapter or two, the length criterion loomed large in the decision-making process. Realizing this, at the end of this volume, we have included a supplementary listing of documents related to each topic that we believe the reader will find of interest.

## How to Use This Publication

This volume is divided into five sections. Each of the first four sections is devoted to the societal trends being observed. At the beginning of each section, there is an introductory statement that presents the reader with an overview of how schools have responded over time to the trend on which that section focuses. Key elements that distinguish responses and approaches are also highlighted.

At the heart of each section are the ERIC documents themselves. The documents offer the reader first-hand insight as to how the schools have reacted, and are the best direct resource for tracking trends. Each document reflects the societal and educational mores of the times. As such, these documents are sociological markers as well as historical record. One gets not just a history of the how the school's role has changed, but a feeling and a flavor for the reasons underlying these changes. The documents give this research effort its life.

The fifth and final section of this publication is a summary statement. Here, the major themes that have emerged throughout this work are examined to see what conclusions can be made about the role of schools as a whole.

We conclude this Introduction with the hope that this volume will serve the reader in two ways. First of all, it is our immediate desire that this publication provide the reader with a contextual understanding of the role that schools have served as agents of change. Reacting to societal trends of great import and impact, schools have extended their traditional role to include programs to meet these emerging needs. The way in which these accommodations have been made has not always been straightforward, but has reflected society's norms and its accompanying tolerance or intolerance for the trends under discussion.

Secondly, we hope that when through reading this volume, the reader will (if not already) become an active user of the ERIC system. ERIC is a tremendous resource available to all who are concerned about education. As ERIC enters another decade, we celebrate its past and look forward to a future in which it will continue to meet our growing need for educational information.

# TRUE 1:

## THE INCREASE IN CHILDREN AND FAMILIES LIVING IN POVERTY

For young children and their families, the last 30 years have seen an unchecked increase in poverty. What was thought to be an alarming situation in 1966 has only intensified over time. Consider these statistics (The Children's Defense Fund, 1996):

- Child poverty rates in the United States are two to nine times higher than in every other industrialized country.
- More than one in five American children is poor; for children under six, the number is one in four.
- Every 32 seconds, a child is born into poverty.
- Twenty-seven children die from poverty-related causes every day.
- In one year, 23,000 poor families with children live on less income than one entertainment executive earns.

In addition to an overall increase in poverty, the problem has spread geographically. In 1966, poverty was mostly a Southern problem: children in the South were twice as likely to be poor as children in other regions of the country. While the Southern child poverty rate has remained virtually unchanged, other regions of the country now share the level of poverty that has always been found in the South.

The face of poverty has changed in other demographic ways. Contrary to what many believe, most poor children live not in the inner city, but in rural and suburban areas. Moreover, the majority of poor children live in families with working parents. The working poor outnumber those on welfare by two to one.

Why has poverty grown in such magnitude? The answer lies in economic and social trends that have made it increasingly difficult for families to support their children. In brief, as higher paying manufacturing jobs have been replaced by lower paying, more temporary jobs in the service sector, more families have needed both parents to work in order to survive.

Clearly, poverty is of greater likelihood when there is only one wage earner in a household. Since the number of children living with single mothers increased from 7.5 million in 1970 to 13.5 million in 1988, it is not difficult to see why child poverty is on the rise. Some 69.6% of children in homes headed by single mothers currently live in poverty.

Poverty has thus had an increasingly strong impact on American families and children in particular. How schools have responded is the subject of the ten documents in this section.

### Beginning Anti-poverty Strategies

Compensatory education was born idealistically in "The Great Society" of the mid-1960's. It was an assumption of the times that society had seriously shortchanged poor children, and that educational programming could rapidly turn this situation around. The fact that we are still faced with the same challenges 30 years later only underscores the naiveté of this early philosophy.

While the underlying theory may seem unrealistically optimistic today, interestingly, these early compensatory education programs remain among the best in existence, using strategies that have withstood the test of time.

A 1968 paper by Ira Gordon presents *The Florida Parent Education Model*. The described approach entails the use of a home visitor to train parents to be more effective and to serve as teachers to their children. The ideas presented here--using neighborhood home visitors, having home visitors work one-on-one with parents, and an underlying appreciation that parents are children's first and most important teachers--may be more accepted today than when Gordon introduced them in 1968. America 2000, the popular Missouri-based Parents as Teachers program and the home-based option of Head Start all support this early model for service delivery.

Head Start is perhaps the best known of all compensatory education models. Begun in 1965 as an anti-poverty program for four-year-olds, it provided (and continues to do so today) comprehensive educational, health, parent involvement, and social services to children and families. Despite contradictory evaluations over the years (that have sometimes been criticized as much for their own methodologies as for what they had to say about Head Start), Head Start is generally acknowledged to be a shining star among federally sponsored initiatives (*CRS Report for Congress, 1990*). The 1970 report included here is a description of Head Start's start-up by the Office of Child Development, the federal office which oversaw the early days of the program.

A third innovation included is an experiential approach to reading *(Learning to Read Through the Arts)* begun in New York City in 1971 through Title I funding. (Note: Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of

1965 provided "Financial assistance to State and local educational agencies to meet the special needs of educationally deprived children." In 1981, funds for this compensatory education program were moved to Chapter 1 of the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act). The underlying approach is that students will be motivated to read when they see a practical benefit for acquiring this skill. Through participation in dance, music, theater, filmmaking, photography, puppetry, drawing, painting or sculpture workshops, students learn to read materials that will help them be proficient in their chosen art. This enrichment approach to teaching is, again, one that is popularly used today.

## Evaluating Progress

While the beginning years of compensatory education can be characterized by a plethora of activity, the next phase was one in which educators began to cast a reflective eye. The pace at which new programs appeared slowed. The trend turned to looking at compensatory education programs as a group, not as individual programs with idiosyncratic agendas, goals, and promises.

As Merkel-Keller reports in *The Evolution of Evaluation: Title I to Chapter 1*, the impetus for this movement flowed downward from the Federal government, which in 1978 mandated the Title I Evaluation and Reporting System (TIERS). Merkel-Keller writes: "State agencies without clear mandates or guidelines for program evaluation used the TIERS systems as a vehicle for evaluating not only Title I programs, but other compensatory evaluation programs."

The rash of evaluative studies in the late 1970's and early 1980's, spurred by the TIERS, found that, in general, compensatory education programs overlapped one another, offered fragmented instruction, and had unclear lines of responsibility. Reacting to the wake of largely negative reviews of compensatory education that came out at this time, Carsrud offered some positive suggestions for solving "current and potential problems." Her paper, *If It Is Broke, Fix It! (How To Make A Compensatory Program Work)*, put forth a plan for eliminating overlapping services, re-evaluating the way services are delivered and administered, and working with teachers to improve quality.

A retrospective paper by Anderson and Stonehill of the U.S. Office of Education (Twenty Years of Federal Compensatory Education: What Do We Know About the Program?) offers a tempered view of the evaluation studies: "Questions about the effectiveness of the [compensatory education] program have been asked since its inception. Despite the discouraging findings of initial reports, and later national evaluations, the general opinion had been that the program was effective in improving achievement for the children served. However, debate over the magnitude of the effectiveness, and cost-effectiveness, has resurfaced in recent years."

## Redefining the School's Role

The most recent phase reported in literature has been one of redefinition. The current trend focuses on translating the results of program evaluation into action. A paper by Chubb of the Brookings Institution challenges public schools to re-examine their organizational effectiveness. The author makes this case: "In order to be effective, public schools may have to adopt the organizational structure of private schools. Fundamental reform may be the only hope for school improvement, and hence for greater educational gains for the poor."

A 1988 Information Analysis *(The Delivery and Organization of Compensatory Education)* compiled by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Urban Education, one of 16 Clearinghouses in the ERIC system, suggests several policy changes that might improve the school's ability to serve children in poverty. The report recommends that Chapter 1 funds be continued when a school's achievement scores increase. In addition, students should be kept in regular classrooms, not removed for "pull-out" instruction. The report closes with this cautionary reflection: "...research on more effective schooling suggests that compensatory education programs like Chapter 1 may restrict the ability of the school to establish an ethos of shared economic goals, high expectations, and a strong culture of achievement, which have been shown to raise and maintain student achievement in many low-income, minority schools."

A speech by Rims Barber prepared for the 1989 Conference on the Status of Rural Education, "Jumping the Alligators in the Ditch," makes the claim that the challenge is still ahead of us. The author contends that the outlook for poor black youngsters in rural Mississippi has changed very little over time. Their situation is likened to that of teenagers who still jump the local alligator-filled ditches for sport: "the odds are against escaping the alligators, and the advantages of getting to the far side are not very apparent." The speech does end on a high note, though, with a call for restructuring schools: "We have got to make school an attractive place for these young people, a place where they ... can begin to dream and have those dreams nurtured. Then we have to drain the swamp, so that there are no ditches left with alligators to scare them out of trying to make the jump across."

The final entry in this review focuses on putting Barber's exhortation into practice. In their 1992 summary report, *Making Schools Work for Children in Poverty*, the Commission on Chapter 1 puts forth an eight-pronged strategy for making radical changes to the legislation, rather than the usual cosmetic face-lifts. The authors strongly recognize the need to convert Chapter 1 from a law designed to teach basic skills to one which focuses on helping children acquire advanced skills and knowledge.

The goal of this report is to make schools responsive to the belief that "all children can learn at high levels and that establishing lesser standards for children because of their economic circumstances should not be tolerated." This would certainly offer children a bridge across the alligator-filled ditch described earlier.

## Summary

This review of the past 30 years of school-related anti-poverty programs reveals the evolution of a concept as well as a reaction to the problem by the schools and the federal government. The dream of the Great Society that infusions of money could quickly redress the disadvantages of poverty is, with hindsight, quite naive. Yet, it was the idealism of these early days which bore some of the most successful anti-poverty programs of all time, including Head Start.

Over time, individual programs seemed not as important as a consistent approach to the problem. Federal funding and a legislative mandate for evaluation caused States and local jurisdictions to critically examine what was taking place in the schools. Following an initial wave of highly critical evaluations, observers began to take a more considered view. Educators began to focus on what was right with compensatory education instead of dwelling on its shortcomings.

The most current trend is to look toward the future and see how schools might better refocus on serving the needs of children in poverty. The current vision is of an American Dream that educates all children to their full potential—including the poor.

## Follow Through

# THE FLORIDA PARENT EDUCATION MODEL[1]

*(ED028139)*

Ira J. Gordon, Director
Institute for Development of Human Resources
College of Education
University of Florida
Gainesville, Florida
1968

### Rationale and Major Objectives

A considerable body of research literature indicates that a major source of a student's pattern of achievement and motives for achievement, as well as his personality structure, is the home in which he grows up. The behavior and attitudes of his parents, as well as the nature of the physical setting and materials provided, have a direct impact on his behavior before and during the school years. In particular three elements of the home may be categorized: Demographic factors (housing, income, ethnic membership), cognitive factors, and emotional factors. The cognitive variables might be further defined as the amount of academic guidance provided, the cognitive operational level and style of the parents, the cultural activities they provide, the mount of direct instruction they engage in, their educational aspirations, their language structure and the frequency of language interaction, and the intellectuality they provide such as in books, magazines, and the like.

The parental emotional factors may be conceived of as the consistency of management and disciplinary patterns, the parent's own emotional security and self-esteem, their belief in internal versus external control of the environment, their own impulsivity, their attitudes toward school, their willingness to devote time to their children, and their patterns of work (Gordon, 1968, in press). If these factors do contribute to child performance, then one phase of the educational program, especially in compensatory education, should be the education of parents to not only recognize these factors but also to change them in ways which might increase the achievement motivation, intellectual behavior, and self-esteem of the child. The Florida Parent Education Follow Through Model, therefore, was designed to directly intervene in the home so that the home situation might led to better school and life performance.

Not all of the child's behavior, obviously, is a function of the home. The school itself plays an integral role in the intellectual and personality development of the child. The nature of the curriculum, the mode of teacher behavior, the classroom ecology, all influence not only immediate behavior but also patterns of behavior for the future. Any program of compensatory education needs to work not only in the home but also in the school.

The Florida Model, therefore, provides ways of changing the classroom organization and teaching patterns as well as influencing the curriculum in a Follow Through classroom through the use of paraprofessionals, systematic observation techniques, and curriculum development based upon the Piagetian theory.

The program emphasis is on (1) the development of nonprofessionals as parent educators, and as effective participants in the classroom teaching process, and (2) the development of appropriate observation procedures and instructional tasks which can be carried from the school into the home to establish a more effective home learning environment.

Specific objectives are:

1. Changes in mothers' (including parent educators):
    A. Attitudes toward school
    B. Language
    C. Involvement in school activities
    D. Teaching behavior with her child
    E. Provision of intellectual and cultural experiences for the child
2. Changes in the school through:
    A. Improvement in teacher morale
    B. Changes in classroom organization and duties as they refer to the teacher and the aide
    C. Changes in teachers' language (toward more effective communication with the disadvantage pupils)
    D. Development of systematic instructional tasks which have as their main thrust cognitive development
    E. Changes in the personal-social climate of the classroom

3. Changes in pupils':
   A. Self-concept
   B. Classroom behavior
   C. Achievement in school activities

It is obvious that we expect the changes to be in a positive direction.

## Key Elements

The key elements of the program are the training of the mother (one or two to each classroom) in the role of combined parent educator and teacher aide along with training the teacher in the use of an aide. Both are taught techniques for studying individual and classroom behavior, and procedures for the development of teaching tasks. The parent education activity consist of periodic (preferably once a week) home visits in which the major activity is the demonstration and teaching of the mother in tasks that have been devised in school to increase the child's intellectual competence and personal and social development. As a part of the demonstration in teaching, the parent educator will help the mother understand the purposes of each task, how to perform it, and how to estimate the ability of the child to complete the task.

The parent educator will also serve as the first line liaison person between the Follow Through program and the home. She well serve as a referral agent for medical, dental, psychological, or social services, by informing the mother of the existence of such services, and, depending upon the community, establishing the contact between the home and a representative of these services. This requires that the parent educator understand the nature of other Follow Through and community services in addition to understanding her role in the task area.

In the school, the parent educator serves as a teacher aide in implementing instructional activities through assisting in the observation of individual pupils and general classroom behavior and in working with individuals or small groups on various tasks. A basic element in the Florida Model is the upgrading of the aide to carry on such technical tasks.

A key element in the program is the classroom teacher. She supervises the classroom work of the aide and assists her in planning and implementing the parent education activities. In return she receives more effective technical help from a second or third adult in the classroom in carrying out the general goal of reaching each child.

## Procedures for Implementation

In order for the parent educator and the teacher to carry out the complex system of home and school task building and observation, the summer workshop taught both teachers and aides a set of observation instruments (available upon request) designed to enable either the teacher or the aide to study a particular child, several children or the classroom at large as well as to study the teaching behavior and general classroom climate. This workshop training will be supplemented throughout the year by monthly consultant visits and a data monitoring program.

A second element is the development of materials and teaching procedures for the parent educator to take to the home. Beginnings were made on laying a theoretical rationale and teaching a way of development of procedures in the summer workshop. The Florida Parent Education Model in no way determines for a school community what its curriculum should be. The effort is to enable the teacher and school to examine the curriculum and apply an analytical orientation to it so that particular tasks may be developed which are appropriate for home training. This was begun in the workshop and the consulting and monitoring operations will also be related to this activity.

A possible classroom on a particular day might proceed as follows: Teacher and aide will sit down and plan together that the aide will apply some techniques for pupil observation to studying a particular child or several children for a stated period of time while the teacher will conduct the usual range of activities. The aide will then report to the teacher on her observations and the teacher-aide team will then make some decision as to what particular curriculum materials will be appropriate for those children. The teacher and aide then will decide which of these the aide may be able to use in either individual or small-group work. The aide will carry out this activity and feed the results back to the teacher. At the same time as she is doing this with the child in the school, she will visit the home and teach the mother either the same or a complementary task. The number of home visits which will be made is to some degree a function of size of class and number of aides employed. Generally, visits will be no further apart than once every two weeks. The aide will then report back to the teacher (using a standardized observation report form) and the cycle will begin again.

A consultant and monitoring system has been developed to assist schools in implementing this type of activity. Each local community will send monthly reports to the University of Florida (approximately two weeks before a scheduled consultant visit), including data consisting of classroom observations of the class at large and each individual pupil, copies of the tasks taken into the homes, the observation reports of the home visits, and an audio tape taken during a classroom instructional period. These data will be analyzed to assess the possible difficulties and needs of the community. The consultant will then be briefed and will carry back with him an analysis of the data along with ideas for continued inservice training of the Follow Through group. In this way the data serve constantly as feedback. As effective teaching tasks are developed in a particular community, they will be shared with other communities for possible use. In this way a body of materials suitable for home learning will be identified for general distribution.

## Expectations

It is obvious that this is a complex program requiring effective teamwork not only between the University and the local community but also between teachers, aides, parents, and administrators. One condition essential for effective implementation is the understanding by the school principal and other administrative school personnel of the nature of the program, its expectations, and its requirements. It is hoped that the consulting visits will involve the principal and other school personnel so that this condition can be met. The continued inservice education of teachers and parent educators, particularly those who did not attend the workshop, is essential for the program. We make no assumptions that the program will go well in its early stages. We see this first year as enabling both the schools and the University personnel to learn how to make such a program work. This means that another essential condition is a high degree of flexibility, willingness to change, and tolerance of ambiguity by all concerned. Only if this exists can the monitoring system work for change rather than serve to freeze the program prematurely. We do not expect the essential elements of the role of parent educator and teacher to be learned and understood and applied without a good deal of give-and-take and interaction. On the other hand we see the development of the parent educator role as essential and as the one part of the program basically not subject to much modification.

If by the end of the first year teachers have learned to use a parent educator for observation and task work, if teachers have learned to continuously assess what they are doing in terms of its purposes, if parent educators have been able to establish continuing contacts with many of the homes, and if the parents in these homes have begun to understand the importance of their role and have learned some specifics for working with their children, we will have gone a long way toward accomplishing our objectives. Based on these achievements, continuing years will be needed to tighten up and improve the general model and its procedures.

## Future Developmental Work

When we entered, naively, upon this activity in Kansas City we had not envisioned how critical it would be that people in this model engage in curriculum development. We now see this as a very important part of the model although, I repeat, we do not wish to determine for a community what its curriculum should be. We see curriculum development as enabling them to make the most out of whatever they wish to teach. The process of development and the application of a theoretical rationale is part of our future developmental work. As a result of the summer workshop we are even more convinced of the utility of the systematic observation of classroom behavior and of home learning behavior as key elements in the work of the parent educator and teacher. Future developmental work is needed in the design of observation approaches which can be used and learned by teachers and nonprofessionals in the home and school setting. Further developmental work in the definition of the relationship of the parent educator to the noninstructional and non-parent involvement elements of the program is also needed. How does the parent educator serve as the liaison person? Should she become an ombudsman? These are questions to which we must address ourselves. We look forward to this continued development.

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1. Prepared for the Atlanta Follow Through Workshop, October 10-12, 1968.

# PROJECT HEAD START 1968: THE DEVELOPMENT OF A PROGRAM

*(ED055650)*

Office of Child Development
Department of Health, Education, and Welfare
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## INTRODUCTION

Project Head Start was designed as a comprehensive program to serve disadvantaged children and their families. The task has been to translate the concept of such a comprehensive program into action. Within the framework of general guidelines, much was left to local communities; no two communities were expected to be able to mobilize resources in the same way or even have the same resources available.

The Head Start concept has been carried to, and programs have been conducted in large, medium and small urban areas, suburban and rural communities, migrant camps, and on Indian reservations. The Programs have shared in the goal of providing the children of the poor with an equal opportunity to develop to their full potential. To this end, Project Head Start has provided medical, dental, nutritional services and care for the children; involved parents; employed and trained the disadvantaged; mobilized social services and community resources to improve the lives of the families; and utilized volunteers in a variety of capacities as well as provided an enrichment program for stimulating the social, emotional, and intellectual development of the child.

Data in this report cannot reflect the variety of ways in which these communities have tapped available resources or even how they have opened up new avenues of services in the face of non-existing ones. Data collected by the Bureau of the Census can provide a profile of Project Head Start as it was in 1968 and its development as a nation-wide program in its fourth summer and third full year of operation – its clients, its components, its participants and their activities.

The philosophy behind the two general types of Head Start programs (Summer and Full Year) is essentially the same; however, operational differences do exist. Summer Head Start programs range from six to eight weeks in duration. Full Year Head Start may operate from eight to twelve months of the year providing either a part-day or a full-day of center activities for the children. For either type of program, the minimum weekly length of operation is fifteen hours. Summer programs are generally for older preschool children who will be eligible for kindergarten or first grade in the fall; full year programs are primarily for younger preschool children three years of age or older up to the age when they are eligible for kindergarten or first grade.

In general, about twice as many Head Start centers and classes are in operation during summer compared to full year. For example, during the 1968 summer program, 476,000 children and their families were being served at 9,500 centers (different physical locations) in 27,000 classrooms by 92,000 paid staff members. During the 1968 full year program, 218,000 children and their families were served at 5,200 centers in 11,000 classrooms by 47,000 paid staff members. In addition, figures prepared by the Office of Economic Opportunity indicate that 81,000 volunteers were involved in the summer and 39,000 in the full year program; however, the number of volunteers who worked in the centers on a regular basis is somewhat more difficult to determine.

Though the report does not give a complete picture of all the activities and persons associated with Head Start, it does depict the variety of children and their families being served, Head Start centers and their program components, and characteristics of participating staff. Data drawn from each of these three major dimensions tend to reflect some differences in composition between full year and summer programs as well as trends over time.[1] Comments and recommendations have been built into the presentation of the data where such a discussion seemed appropriate. A summary follows at the end of each section highlighting key aspects of the data considered relevant for program planning purposes. In the discussion of program components, reference is made to the program guidelines and activities to provide the reader with a framework for interpretation of the data.

# HEAD START CHILDREN AND THEIR FAMILIES

## The Children

In 1968, as in previous years, a younger population of preschool children was being served in the full year program as compared to the summer program. Close to two-thirds of those in full year were under five years of age, while about three-fourths of those in summer were five years of age or over at the time of enrollment. (See Table 1.) About one-half the centers in full year served children in the age range from 2-1/2 years to 7 years and over, while about three-fourths in summer served children 4-1/2 years to 7 years and over (however, only 1 percent to 2 percent of all the children were 7 years or over). This suggests that most centers were serving mixed age groups.

**Table 1**
**Age of Children (Percents)**

| | Full Year 1968 | Summer 1968 |
|---|---|---|
| Under 3 years | 2.5% | 0.5% |
| 3 - 3 yrs., 11 mos. | 17.8% | 3.2% |
| 4 - 4 yrs., 11 mos. | 43.2% | 20.2% |
| 5 - 5 yrs., 11 mos. | 31.0% | 40.1% |
| 6 years and over | 3.0% | 33.6% |
| Not Reported | 2.3% | 2.4% |

While slightly more males than females were enrolled, the sex ratio has remained about equal over time.

Children from many ethnic groups participated in Head Start. In the full year program, Negro children were the largest ethnic cultural group represented; Caucasian (other than Central American, Puerto Rican, and Mexican-American) children were the second largest. These two groups also made up the majority of children served during the summer with each about equally represented. The third largest group was composed of Mexican-American children (See Table 2.) Most of the children in the program were English-speaking; about 7 percent to 9 percent were non-English speaking children.

Over one-half the children enrolled had had no previous preschool experience. The proportion having previous Head Start experience has increased, however, from 16 percent to 19 percent in the 1966 and 1967 programs to 36 percent to 39 percent in the 1968 programs suggesting fewer new children in the program.

## Their Families

Although the largest portion of families in both programs were non-farm residents, about 10 percent lived on farms.

**Table 2**
**Ethnicity of Children (Percents)**

| | Full Year 1968 | Summer 1968 |
|---|---|---|
| Caucasian | 23.4% | 38.0% |
| Negro | 51.0% | 37.2% |
| Oriental | 0.2% | 0.0% |
| American Indian | 2.3% | 1.2% |
| Mexican-American | 8.8% | 10.2% |
| Puerto Rican | 6.6% | 0.6% |
| Eskimo | 0.5% | 0.3% |
| Other | 1.0% | 5.9% |
| Not reported | 6.2% | 6.5% |

In 1968, as in previous years, a larger proportion of families in the full year program (29 percent) were welfare recipients compared to those in the summer programs (20 percent). In addition, fewer families in full year reported a male household head (68 percent), than those in summer (77 percent). The proportion reporting both a mother and father present in the home was also lower in full year (66 percent) as compared to summer (74 percent).

About two-thirds in full year and three-fourths in summer reported a father (includes natural, step or foster father but not a guardian) present in the home of the Head Start child. Ages for fathers in the home were similar for both programs. About one-half were 21 to 34 years of age, and the next largest group were those who were 35 to 49 years old. Over 70 percent of the fathers had not graduated from high school. The occupations most frequently reported were: (1) laborers, except farm and mine; (2) operatives and kindred workers; (3) craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers. About 17 percent in full year and 11 percent in summer were unemployed at the time of the surveys. However, about 32 percent in full year and 22 percent in summer reported they either did **not** work or were employed **less** than ten months out of the previous year.

Almost all families reported mothers (including natural, step or foster mother but not guardian) were living with the Head Start child (about 4 percent had mother-absent homes). Over two-thirds of the mothers were 21 to 34 years old. **About two-thirds were not high school graduates.** The occupational category most frequently reported (other than housewife) was that of service worker. About 31 percent in full year and 27 percent in summer reported they **were** employed at the time of the surveys. However, only 19 percent reported that they were employed ten or more months out of the previous year.

About 80 percent of the families in full year and 69 percent of those in the summer Head Start program earned less than $5,000 a year. The median family income was $3,210 for full year and about $3,750 for summer families. The median size of Head Start families was 6.7 persons in full year and 6.5 persons in summer.

Less than 4 percent of the families reported either a guardian (other than parent or foster parent) or other non-relatives present in the home. Over 91 percent reported siblings of the Head Start child were living in the home. Over two-thirds had one or more siblings under 6 years old; almost as many reported at least one sibling who was 6 to 15 years old; and about 16 percent had one or more siblings who were 16 to 21 years old living in the home. About 19 percent of the families reported other relatives living in the home, and these were distributed across all age ranges.

About 42 to 48 percent of the families reported that siblings of the Head Start child had had no previous preschool experience, and 38 to 42 percent reported that siblings had had previous preschool experience. This is a substantial increase over the 17 percent in the 1966 and the 29 percent in the 1967 programs who so reported suggesting that there were fewer new families in Head Start in 1968 than in previous years.

Over three-fourths of the families had three rooms or fewer in the home for sleeping. **About 14 to 16 percent had no running water inside the home.** For 38 percent of those in full year and 50 percent in summer, the drinking water supply in the home was neither naturally nor artificially fluoridated. **About 46 percent in full year and 40 percent in summer did not have the use of a telephone; about 40 percent in full year and 29 percent in summer did not have the use of a car or truck; and 33 percent to 36 percent did not receive a newspaper.** Most Head Start families did, however, have the use of a television set (over 90 percent) or radio (84 percent).

**In summary, these data suggest that:**

In general, Project Head Start was recruiting fairly poor families who came from varied cultural backgrounds and geographic locations.

At least one-fifth were on welfare; and unemployment rates in 1968 were higher among male-headed households (11 to 17 percent) than the national average (1.5 and 2.9 percent of White and non-White male heads of household). Their median income was lower ($3,210 to $3,750 ) than that of all U.S. families according to income earned in 1967 ($7,974) and median family size was larger (6.5 to 6.7 persons) than that of all U.S. families (3.7 percent).[2]

By 1968, an increased proportion of the enrolled children and their families had been previously involved in Head Start programs. This may well reflect the families' satisfaction with the program. On the other hand, this also points out that a substantial number of children were receiving more than 8 to 12 months of a full year experience and/or more than 6 to 8 weeks of a summer experience. Center staff may wish to review their curriculum and services to ensure the continued applicability of the program for meeting the individual needs of these children and their families.

## HEAD START CENTERS AND THE PROGRAM

### Operations

While a variety of institutions and organizations were operating Head Start centers, most frequently centers were operated by public schools (32 percent in full year and 58 percent in summer) or local community action agencies (41 percent in full year and 31 percent in summer). Centers in the full year program were housed in a number of different types of buildings. Almost all those in summer were located in public school buildings (91 percent). This is probably related to the greater availability of public school buildings during the summer (full year programs operate during the regular school year). For either program, about 90 percent of the centers reported they were located in the neighborhood of the children and parents being served. However, about 44 percent in full year and 68 percent in summer reported the use of school buses for transporting children, which suggests that not all the families resided within walking distance of the centers.

Most centers in both programs were open up to six hours per day (part day) in terms of activities for children. About 24 percent in full year were open more than six hours per day (full day) for the children. The Head Start centers were predominantly small in size with 85 percent in full year and 73 percent in summer reporting that one to three classes only were conducted at their sites.

### Health Services

**The Program:** According to the Guidelines, every Head Start program must have a health services component designed (a) to find and remedy existing health defects of each child enrolled and (b) to insure the future health of each child by making provision for preventive medical and dental services through immunizations and fluoride treatment, health education for the child and his family, and introducing the child and his family to a source of health care which will be available on a continuing basis. Since 1965, pediatricians and dentists have been available as consultants to work with individual Head Start programs at their request in the development of the health services component. To facilitate the health goals of Head Start, recommended health records have been available from the

National Office for use by local center staff since the first summer program (CAP-HS Forms 30, 30a - 30d). In 1968, a health record bookkeeping system was developed and recommended for use in the centers for maintaining systematic records on the health status of each child.

**The Data**: The medical personnel most frequently reported as available to centers on a regular basis (two-thirds to three-fourths) were nurses. However, only a third of the centers in the full year program reported space utilized as a nurse's or first aid room (compared to two-thirds in summer), reflecting possible differences in facilities among the various buildings used. In terms of community medical services, over three-fourths of the centers in both programs relied heavily on Public Health Clinics in the area; about one-fourth reported that Comprehensive Health Clinics were available and utilized. Over one-half also indicated that medical laboratory services were available and utilized.

According to the parents, over 90 percent of the children received medical and/or dental examinations during the Head Start program, and something was found wrong with 36 to 43 percent of these children. About three-fourths of these children had received treatment; most frequently, it was in a doctor or dentist's office. According to center personnel, about mid-way through the program, 82 to 85 percent of the children had received health appraisals. Of these, 18 percent to 19 percent required treatment or special evaluation beyond the original examination. About two-thirds to three-fourths of the children had received dental examinations. Dental caries were discovered in one-half, and three-fifths of these children had received or were receiving treatment at the time of the surveys. Projecting to national figures, this means about 44,127 children in full year and 111,180 in summer were being treated for dental caries at the time of the surveys. About one-half to 71 percent of the children had also received Tuberculosis, Anemia, Hearing and Vision screening tests; treatment was underway for over one-half of those with Anemia, and over one-fourth of those with vision difficulties.

Over one-fourth to one-half had received any one of four immunizations (Diphtheria, Pertussis, and Tetanus; Polio; Smallpox; or Measles) prior to the Head Start program. About 26 percent to 39 percent of the children had received one or more doses of DPT and Polio vaccine; 11 percent to 23 percent had received Smallpox and Measles vaccine; and 28 percent had fluoride applied to their teeth during the program by the time this survey was conducted. However, as of mid-program term (if unknowns and not reported are included), 12 percent to 18 percent may not have begun the DPT vaccine series; one-fourth may not have begun the Polio series; close to one-half may not have received a Smallpox vaccination; over one-third may not have received Measles vaccine, and over one-half of the children may not have been covered by preventive dental measures (that is, they neither normally drank fluoridated water nor received fluoride treatment in Head Start). These data suggest that some of the centers may have had difficulties in seeing that medical and dental preventive care in these areas was provided. Fluoride treatment probably represents a different problem to centers (the most efficient method for providing this may not be acceptable to dentists in the local community) than ensuring that all children receive their immunizations (this may mean a more vigorous follow-up with parents in terms of reminders as well as seeing that they have the transportation and/or baby-sitters so that they can take their children to Public Health Clinics).

Center staff and parent organizations also held lectures, demonstrations, and workshops for parents on health education. About 32 to 44 percent of the mothers accompanied their children on medical and dental trips arranged for them by center staff.

## Nutritional Services

**The Program:** Every Head Start program must have a sound nutrition component. The objective of this component is optimum nutrition for all Head Start children and their families. Six practical methods for achieving this objective have been developed: (1) serving meals to the children; (2) nutrition education for the children; (3) nutrition education for all Head Start personnel in pre-service and continuing in-service training; (4) nutrition education for parents which is relevant to their individual needs (including cultural differences), economic problems, and food availability; (5) utilization of printed materials assembled in the form of a Project Head Start Nutrition Kit and the film ***JENNY IS A GOOD THING;*** (6) services of Head Start Nutrition Consultants. In serving meals to the children, daily menus should reflect preservation of the child's cultural food patterns and meet his individual requirements for necessary nutrients. Nutrition education is provided to the children through the appropriate introduction of new foods, their participation in the food preparation process, and by generally establishing mealtime as a pleasant learning and social experience. All Head Start personnel should be trained in this component in order to carry out the goals of the Nutrition program; Directors are charged with the responsibility for developing such training programs in conjunction with Regional Training Officers and Nutrition Consultants. Nutrition education for the parents should be a permanent part of the Head Start Center's program; benefit to the children is seen as dependent upon a carry-over of the same principles into the home where the entire family stands to benefit. Head Start Nutrition publications are assembled into a Project Head Start Nutrition Kit which serves as a ready reference for conducting each of the above aspects of the Head Start Nutrition and Food Program. The award winning film on nutrition, ***JENNY IS A GOOD THING***, is available in English and Spanish for training and community relations programs. Staff Nutritionists have the responsibility for developing the nutrition component in the centers. They play a role in each of the other components thus avoiding fragmentation, and are an economical investment for a center concerned with developing quality programs. In the absence of a Staff Nutritionist, the Head Start Nutrition Consultants play a major role and are available upon request to each Region to make on-site visits and help in setting up the nutrition components, up-grade and build quality into the programs, and provide evaluation and follow-up.

**The Data:** About 38 percent to 49 percent of the centers reported nutritionists were available to the centers as staff on a regular basis. Two-thirds reported either a staff nutritionist or nutrition consultant had been utilized for planning the menu and food service component of the program. Over 59 percent of the centers also reported nutrition services were available in the community and were utilized.

About 77 percent of the centers in full year and 87 percent in summer reported kitchen space available and utilized. Most centers (two-thirds in full year and 78 percent in summer) reported food was prepared on the premises. Centers in the full year program most frequently served food family style (57 percent) in the classrooms only (64 percent). Those in summer more frequently served meals cafeteria style (47 percent) in school cafeterias only (49 percent).

**Over 94 percent of the centers provided lunch and one or more other meals to children in the program. Mid-morning or mid-afternoon snacks were more frequently the second meal served, and about 40 percent in full year and 26 percent in summer served breakfast.** Both breakfast and lunch were usually served as hot meals while snacks were served as cold meals.

While some differences in meal service facilities were reflected between full year and summer programs, most centers reported that children sat in child-size chairs at child-size tables with their teacher during meals. Over 82 percent of the centers reported that the children participated in the meal service in some manner (such as setting the table, serving, and/or cleaning up afterwards). However, centers in full year (73 percent) more frequently reported participation of children in two or more aspects compared to summer (44 percent) suggesting that the use of school cafeterias and serving meals cafeteria style may not provide the same opportunities for child participation that serving meals family style in the classroom does.

Center staff and parent organizations conducted lectures, demonstrations, and workshops on nutrition, food preparation, and consumer education for the parents. About one-fifth of the Head Start mothers also frequently or occasionally joined their child for lunch in the center.

## Psychological Services

**The Program:** According to the Guidelines, every Head Start program must have a psychological services component designed to facilitate effective interaction among the staff and the parents and children being served. Psychologists and/or psychiatrists should visit the centers preferably every week with the purpose of helping staff to better understand the individual needs of the parents and children being served, and contribute to improved curriculum and program development for meeting these needs. This would include working out policies for handling of each child to help him achieve his potential with particular focus on any child who presents a learning or behavior problem to the staff. With the parents, this would involve meeting with parents individually and in groups to discuss child development and problems they encounter with their children. Regional Office consultants for Psychological Services are available to local agencies to help them set up or improve this component of the program by obtaining qualified personnel to serve as mental health consultants.

**The Data:** About 37 percent to 39 percent of the centers reported that psychologists were available as staff on a regular basis. About 55 percent to 61 percent of the centers reported that psychological services were available in the community and utilized.
About 32 percent to 41 percent utilized available mental health clinics, and 24 percent to 31 percent utilized available child guidance clinics. While the data are inconclusive, about one-fourth to one-third of the centers may not have had one or either of these clinical resources available to them in the community.

Lectures, demonstration, and workshops held for parents by parents and staff often included child growth and development as a topic; informal group discussions between parents and teachers on class activities were reported by about three-fourths of the classes. Teachers reported that individual consultations had been held with parents of about two-thirds of the children in the program by the time this survey was conducted.

## Social Services

**The Program:** According to the Guidelines, every Head Start program must have a social services component to link the center, the family, and related services and resources in the community. Social service staff have the prime responsibility for activities related to the social welfare of the children and the families in the program. A national pool of social work consultants has been available to the local communities upon request since the first summer program.

**The Data:** Two-thirds of the centers reported social workers and about one-half reported social service aides available as staff on a regular basis. Centers also reported that social workers and social service aides were active in making home visits to the Head Start families.

Close to one-half of the centers in full year and one-fourth to one-half of those in summer reported that family counseling agencies, family planning services, and other family and child services (public and private) were available in the community and utilized. Center staff and parent organizations also held lectures, demonstrations and/or workshops for parents on such topics as family life and planning, and use of community resources. Center staff provided family and individual counseling and/or referrals with 27 percent to 32 percent of the centers averaging one or more such contacts per month. At the time of the surveys, this had involved about 17 percent of all parents in the full year program and 12 percent of those in the summer program. Staff also provided social service counseling and/or referrals with over a third of the centers averaging one or more such contacts per month. About 16 percent to 18 percent of all the parents had been involved.

## Daily Activities

**The Program:** According to the Guidelines, every Head Start center must have a daily program designed to meet the needs of the children enrolled in that center. While all components of Head Start are concerned with the total development of the child, the daily program is at the core of this effort. There is no prescribed curriculum for Head Start classrooms; however, the program should be well-planned, geared to the individual needs of children, appropriate to the specific age group being served, and relevant to the local community and cultural background of the children. It should include activities which foster cognitive, social, emotional and physical growth, as well as those which develop language skills and a positive self-image. Program content should be varied with ample opportunity provided for child initiated activities, problem-solving, and encouragement of the child's natural curiosity. There should be a balance of active and sedentary experiences for individual and small groups of children. Outdoor activities and well-planned field trips should be an integral part of the program. To reach these objectives, a broad range of both indoor and outdoor equipment suitable for pre-school children should be made available at the center. Technical assistance in curriculum content and materials and classroom management is available through Regional Training Officers and consultants. The National Office is presently studying the effects of a variety of pre-school curricular approaches in 38 Head Start programs.

**The Data**: About 71 percent to 84 percent of the centers reported administrators, and almost all centers had teachers and teacher aides available as staff on a regular basis. While center directors were often involved in teacher selection (40 percent to 44 percent), Parent Policy Advisory Committees also participated in teacher selection in about one-third of the centers.

Over 50 percent of the centers reported one teacher to 15 to 18 children in the classroom(s) with median ratio of about one teacher to 15.8 children. According to the Guidelines, the minimum ratio for children 4 years and over is 1:20. When teacher aides were included, 46 percent reported one teacher to every 5 to 8 children in the classroom(s). In addition to classroom activities, centers frequently reported teachers were involved in the recruitment of the children (82 percent) and in making home visits to the Head Start families during the program (89 percent to 93 percent).

About 9 percent reported Montessori class(es) at their centers. Abut 10 to 16 percent reported that Group Care was an applicable label for one or more classes in their center. The most popular label selected by centers as being applicable to one or more of their classes was that of "Environmental Enrichment." In terms of curriculum emphasis, over 73 percent checked the following labels as appropriate to one or more classes in their centers: sensory motor development; language development; group and social development; concept development; self-esteem development; and motivational development.

Almost all centers reported the use of classrooms and outdoor play areas; about one-fourth in full year and one-half in summer also reported the use of gymnasiums. However, while over one-half the centers reported 35 square feet or more of indoor space and 75 square feet or more of outdoor space available for each child, about 38 percent had less than 35 square feet of indoor space. One-third of the centers in full year and one-fifth in summer programs had less than the 75 square feet recommended for outdoor space, suggesting some centers had difficulty in this area. Outdoor play areas were described most often as being adjacent to the classroom at ground level and as having sun and shade areas. About 60 percent reported dirt as the principal surface of the outdoor play area, and close to one-half reported the areas were enclosed by a fence or wall.

Almost all centers reported books available for children in each classroom; one-half also reported books available through nearby public libraries. About one-fourth to one-third also had books and/or other materials such as records and toys available for children to take home. Almost all centers reported a large variety of equipment and materials available for children in the center. For the most part, these were available in each classroom. Some centers appeared to have difficulty in having the following types of equipment available: heavier outdoor equipment; and indoor items such as puppets, aquariums, waterplay equipment and audio-visual aids.

Field trips or special events were provided for the children and several types were popular in nearly all the centers.

The median number of different types was about 7.8 in full year and 6.6 in summer. Over 81 percent of the centers provided trips to parks and woodlands, and visits to the post office, fire station, and police department. Over one-half the centers also took children on field trips to farms, the zoo, and libraries.

## Parent Participation

**The Program:** According to the Guidelines, every Head Start program must have effective parent participation. Provision must be made for parental involvement in the process of making decisions about the nature and operation of the program through participation in formal policy making groups and delegate agency committees, for participation in the classroom as paid staff, volunteers or observers; for frequent interaction between parents and staff members through a home visiting program; and the development of a plan for parent education programs responsive to the needs expressed by parents. Each program should have a staff member responsible for coordination of parent activities. Since 1965, a national body of consultants has been available upon request to local committees to aid in the development of this component (parents are included in this body). In 1968, a pilot program for training parent coordinators was established in two Regions.

**The Data:** About 86 percent of the centers reported either a Policy Advisory Committee (P.A.C.) or parent representation on one at a higher administrative level. About two-thirds of the centers in full year and one-half in summer programs reported that parents were elected rather than appointed to the P.A.C. This represented an increase over those electing rather than appointing members when compared to the 1967 programs, indicating progress toward meeting the Guidelines (see Table 3). Most frequently, one to four parents were represented on a P.A.C.; 13 percent of all Head Start parents in full year and 9 percent of those in summer were so involved. Over 60 percent of the P.A.C.s averaged one or more meetings per month. P.A.C.s were more frequently involved in some form of Head Start program planning (over 83 percent) compared to aid in selection of personnel (64 percent to 75 percent) or project administration (56 percent to 64 percent). These data suggest that while many P.A.C.s were involved in some meaningful management functions, they were not all reported as being as actively involved in all the levels as recommended in the Guidelines.

**Table 3**

**Election or Appointment of Members to Policy Advisory Committees**

| | Full Year 1967 | Full Year 1968 | Summer 1967 | Summer 1968 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Centers Reporting Members Were: | | | | |
| Elected | 55.5% | 67.0% | 41.8% | 47.4% |
| Appointed | 25.2% | 14.7% | 42.9% | 33.4% |
| No P.A.C. or Not Reported | 19.3% | 18.3% | 15.3% | 19.2% |

About 73 percent of the centers in full year and 54 percent of those in summer reported having Center-wide Parent Group Committees, 20 percent of all Head Start parents in full year and 12 percent in summer were reported as regularly and actively involved in meetings held by these committees. About 42 percent of the centers in full year and 29 percent of those in summer also reported parent group committees active at the classroom level.

Over 91 percent of the Head Start centers reported having one or a combination of the parent organizations listed, suggesting Head Start center personnel were providing a great deal of opportunity for parent participation and organization of activities in the centers. About 32 to 38 percent of the centers in both programs had a PAC (or representation on one) and a Center-wide Parent Group Committee; 19 to 38 percent reported having all three parent committees active in their centers. However, only 33 percent of the centers in full year and 49 percent in summer reported space set aside and utilized for a parents' room.

Over 83 percent of the centers in both programs reported utilization of parents as staff members, representing an increase when compared to centers so reporting in the 1967 programs (68 percent to 70 percent). The proportion of all Head Start parents employed in the 1968 programs on a paid and volunteer basis also increased over previous years (21 percent to 24 percent compared to 15 percent to 17

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percent). The largest proportion were working as teacher aides or transportation and trip aides.

Although most parents participated as volunteers, the proportion of all parents who were paid staff had increased from about 1.9 percent in Summer 1965 to 4 percent in Summer 1968. These figures should be considered, however, in relation to the smaller number of paid positions available in the Head Start programs than parents in the Head Start programs. When proportion of the paid staff who were Head Start parents is considered (utilizing OEO figures), percentages have increased from 19 percent in Summer 1965 to 35 percent in Summer 1968 indicating a substantial increase in the utilization of parents in paid staff positions.

Center staff and Center-wide Parent Group Committees were more frequently active in sponsoring parent development activities than were P.A.C.s or Class Parent Groups. Staff in one-half or more of the centers and Center Parent Group Committees in 39 percent to 41 percent of the centers initiated one or more lectures, demonstrations, or workshops per month for the parents. A large variety of topics were covered and popular in both programs were those on child growth and development and structured classroom observations.

Less than 26 percent of the centers reported that parent organizations or center staff averaged one or more social or recreational events per month for the parents.

While few centers held monthly literacy or vocational training sessions in the centers, about one-fifth averaged one or more monthly contacts with parents for educational or vocational counseling. About 64 percent of the centers in full year and 31 percent in summer reported adult education programs were available in the community and utilized. About 41 percent to 52 percent also reported the availability and utilization of work experience and training programs: 32 percent to 49 percent of the full year contract and 19 percent to 29 percent of the summer centers reported that community work and training programs, job retraining programs, and employment agencies were available and utilized. However, about 9 percent to 21 percent in full year and 24 percent to 41 percent in summer reported at least one of these resources as **not** available. There may be the need for some centers to take the responsibility for initiating or conducting literacy and training programs for those parents who are not employed in the center (particularly the fathers).

About 73 percent to 78 percent of the teachers reported parent-teacher consultations on individual children were held with families of the Head Start children. Close to three-fourths of the classes in both programs also reported informal group discussions on class activities were held between the teacher and parents. In terms of parent participation in class activities, parents in both programs frequently or occasionally brought their children to class, accompanied their children on medical or dental visits, or picked their children up after class. Mothers were more active participants than fathers in any of the activities listed. The activity in which mothers most frequently or occasionally participated was that of accompanying their child on medical or dental visits (44 percent of those in full year and 32 percent of those in summer).

When teachers were asked to indicate why some parents may not have participated in class activities, almost all teachers (in 91 percent of the classes) reported that some parents worked during class hours; the next most frequently reported reason (in 85 percent to 87 percent of the classes) was the lack of a babysitter for small children at home; and close to one-half indicated that transportation was a problem. Teachers tended to check more than one reason for lack of participation on the part of some parents in the program; any three or four reasons were checked by teachers in over one-half the classes. While there may be a small core of parents who are extremely difficult to reach in terms of full participation under any circumstances, these data suggest that some centers may need to make periodic arrangements for baby-sitting and provide some additional means of transportation for their parents (possibly through the use of volunteers).

**The Program**: Volunteers have served Head Start since 1965. They provide hours of invaluable direct support to the programs as professional technicians and aides of all kinds. Of equal importance is the link the volunteer provides among Head Start, the family and the community - young and old, rich and poor. Volunteers have been recruited through public service radio and television announcements, presentations to local organizations, newspapers, and "word-of-mouth." It is estimated that over 100,000 volunteers serve in Head Start programs each year.

**The Data**: All Head Start centers reported the utilization of one or more volunteers from either the immediate neighborhood or outside community. Except for college students in both programs and adult professionals in full year (where numbers were about equal), centers most frequently reported volunteers from the immediate neighborhood compared to outside communities.

About 44 percent to 55 percent in both programs reported utilizing adults voluntarily unemployed from the immediate neighborhood; these most likely included housewives and Head Start mothers. About one-fourth to 35 percent in both programs reported the use of individuals (not volunteering through any organized groups). Centers also reported the utilization of volunteers through youth organizations (19 percent to 22 percent), community organizations (28 percent to 38 percent), and professional organizations (17 percent to 19 percent).

About twice as many centers in the summer program reported utilizing volunteers of elementary school (42 percent), junior high and high school age from the immediate neighborhood (58 percent) than did those in full year. About twice as many centers in summer also reported utilization of older siblings of Head Start children (65 percent) as volunteers in the program. This difference is probably related to hours of center operation in the full year when these age groups and older siblings of Head Start children would be attending school, compared to summer when children and youth would be available to participate. This may be one of the benefits of a summer program.

## Training

**The Program**: In recognition of the shortage of staff with special training in the field of early childhood and related areas, and in accordance with its community participation orientation, training has been an integral part of the Head Start program from the beginning. In providing pre-service and in-service training and technical assistance to staff in the local programs, Head Start has been able to achieve its objective of creating opportunities for the development of adults as well as children. It has opened up new career opportunities and paid positions for neighborhood residents (including parents of Head Start children), and has trained related professional personnel to apply their skills specifically to the needs of Head Start children and their families. Summer Head Start personnel have attended five-day orientation sessions, and full year program personnel have received in-service training. Attendance at eight-week training sessions conducted by universities throughout the country has been provided to selected staff members of full year programs. All programs receive assistance from the Regional Training Office in formulating and carrying out their training plans. In September 1967, the Head Start Guidelines called for all full year programs funded after January 1, 1969 to have career development plans for all of their staff. In this context, beginning in Full Year 1968, many centers participated in a Supplementary Training plan actively involving and affecting curricula of the participating universities and providing staff with academic credit for coursework in early childhood and related areas. In addition to training programs, the National Office has developed a series of training films and materials for use by center personnel.

**The Data**: Except for the university-sponsored five-day orientation sessions, a larger portion of centers reported training was provided for staff during the Full Year 1968 program compared to the Summer 1968 Head Start program. These differences are probably related to the length of program operation. A substantial number of centers in both programs reported training provided to staff in the form of in-service training by a supervisor (70 percent to 85 percent), in-service training by consultant (68 percent to 79 percent), discussion groups (76 percent to 79 percent), and lectures by specialists (65 percent to 76 percent). About 43 percent of the centers in full year and 17 percent of those in summer also reported training provided through after-hour classes at a school or college reflecting the emphasis placed on career development and supplementary training in full year programs. About 44 percent of the full year centers reported some staff participation in eight-week university-sponsored training programs, and about 59 percent in summer participated in five-day university-sponsored orientation sessions. (Originally these were the types of training available respectively to full year and summer programs.) That 42 percent of the full year centers also reported some staff participation in the five-day sessions may reflect supplementary training sponsored by a university as part of a career development plan for full year Head Start staff.

While training in any of these categories was most frequently reported as being provided for teachers and aides, many centers also provided training for parents and volunteers. Most frequently, training for parents was in the form of discussion groups (43 percent to 51 percent) or lectures by specialists (28 percent to 38 percent); training for volunteers was most frequently in the form of discussion groups (38 percent to 39 percent) or in-service training by the supervisor (35 percent to 36 percent).

According to individual staff member reports, while more paid staff received some form of training compared to volunteers, and a larger portion of full year staff received in-service training or took adult education or extension courses for credit at a local college or university compared to those in summer, **the proportion of all staff members receiving some form of training as a result of employment in Head Start has shown a progressive increase over time for both full year and summer programs**. The proportion has increased from 57 percent in Full Year 1966 to 74 percent in Full Year 1968, and has increased from 32 percent in Summer 1965 to 63 percent in Summer 1968.

## Community Support

Head Start centers appeared to be active in obtaining community support for the program in a variety of ways. Centers in the full year program most frequently reported active support received from community organizations (73 percent), public speeches by community leaders, and TV, radio, or press coverage (60 percent). Those in summer most frequently reported active support from TV, radio and press (71 percent), community organizations and professional organizations (57 percent). For both programs, 37 percent to 44 percent reported active support from local business.

**In summary, these data suggest that:**

By the mid-term of both Full Year and Summer 1968 Head Start programs, some centers were having difficulties in the following areas:

- Ensuring the provision of preventive medical and dental care for all children in the program;
- Adequate space and facilities for conducting a comprehensive program;
- Selection procedures for parents as Policy Advisory Committee members (particularly during the Summer program);
- Assignment of meaningful management functions at **all** levels to Policy Advisory Committee members;
- Provision for social and recreational events for all parents, and literacy or vocational training programs for those parents not employed in the program;
- Obtaining full parent participation at the class level due to lack of baby-sitter and/or transportation for some parents;
- Assignment of professionals in **all** related specialty areas to work with local center staff on a regular basis.

By the mid-term of both Full Year and Summer 1968, Project Head Start centers had been successful in the following areas:

- Providing medical and dental examinations and treatment for the children;
- Serving meals to the children (full year centers were particularly active in getting the children involved as participants in the meal service process);
- Establishing an adequate teacher-child ratio in the classroom;
- Providing a variety of field trips and special events for the children;
- Making books and equipment available for children in the centers;
- Achieving a high rate of staff home visits;
- Establishing the framework for formal parent organizations;
- Increasing employment of parents as center staff;
- Increasing degree of parent-teacher interaction;
- Recruiting volunteers from a wide spectrum of the community, with respect to age and professional status;
- Eliciting diverse and strong community support.

## HEAD START STAFF MEMBERS

### The Staff

About two-thirds of the staff in both the Full Year and Summer 1968 Head Start programs were filling other than professional positions. Two-thirds of all staff members were neighborhood residents representing one-half of the professional groups (educational, psychological and social service; and medical/dental) and three-fourths of those filling program assistant and other assistant positions.

Teacher aides made up the largest (26 percent to 29 percent) and teachers the next largest proportion (23 percent to 24 percent) of all staff members participating in the programs at the center level.

Staff members tended to be fairly young with a median age of 36 years in full year and 31 years in summer. These differences probably reflected the larger number of teenagers and youths participating in the summer program. During the summer, 30 percent of the staff were under 22 years old compared to 9 percent of those in the full year program. Few (less than 6 percent) in either program were 58 years of age or older.

Although staff members from various ethnic/cultural backgrounds have always participated in Head Start, the two largest groups represented in the 1968 programs were Negro and Caucasian staff. Third largest were Puerto Rican staff in the full year program and Mexican American staff in the summer program (see Table 4).

**Table 4**
**Ethnicity of Staff (Percent)**

|  | Full Year 1968 | Summer 1968 |
|---|---|---|
| Caucasian | 31.6% | 49.0% |
| Negro | 42.2% | 29.7% |
| Oriental | 0.2% | 0.5% |
| American Indian | 2.3% | 0.8% |
| Mexican American | 5.3% | 7.6% |
| Puerto Rican | 6.7% | 0.4% |
| Eskimo | 0.6% | 0.2% |
| Other | 2.0% | 3.2% |
| Not Reported | 8.9% | 8.5% |

Staff members were predominantly female. As in previous programs, male staff made up a slightly larger proportion of those in the summer (14 percent) as compared to the full year program (9 percent). These figures remain the same as those reported in the 1967 programs; there appeared to be no increase in the recruiting of men as staff members in the preschool programs.

On the basis of staff members completing these forms, most were paid staff and 9 percent of those in full year and 13 percent of those in summer were volunteers. These figures may reflect the number of volunteers working in the Head Start centers on a regular and continuous basis over the full program term.

Over 44 percent of those in full year had high school degrees only, as compared to 23 percent in summer. A larger portion of those in summer had Bachelor's or Master's Degrees as compared to full year. Although for both programs, the largest proportion of professional educational, psychological, and social service and medical/dental staff had completed three or more years of college, some differences were reflected: 91 percent of the professional educational, psychological, and social service staff in summer had completed three or more years of college, as compared to 68 percent of this staff in full year. About 90 percent of this group in summer had taken education courses leading to a degree in education or home economics at a college or university as compared to about 73 percent in full year. However, comparable proportions (about one-fifth) of all the professional education, psychological, and social service staff in either program reported taking courses leading to a degree in early child development and about the same number reported three or more years of paid experience with preschool children prior to employment in Head Start. Close to one-fourth in full year and about 46 percent in summer reported three or more years of paid experience with groups of poverty children and/or experience with poverty individuals or families prior to Head Start. Over one-half this staff in summer reported an academic background with a major field in elementary education as compared to one-third in the full year program. Teachers from the public school system appear to be more readily available for working in Head Start during the summer months.

For both the full year and summer program, training was an active component in Head Start and appeared to have been successful in responding to the need for more personnel specifically trained in early childhood education. Preservice and in-service training for work with preschool children was provided the professional educational, psychological and social services staff in the summer program. Supplementary training in this area at a local college or university as well as pre-service and in-service training was provided those in the full year program.

Annual family income tended to vary according to the group and program; over 61 percent of the professional medical/dental staff in both programs reported annual family income as $8,000 and over. More of the professional

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educational, psychological, and social services staff in summer (53 percent) so reported as compared to this group in full year (43 percent). Program assistants and other assistants more frequently reported an annual family income of less than $5,000, with fewer so reporting in summer (58 percent) as compared to full year (68 percent).

About 40 percent of the staff in full year reported having been employed in Head Start for more than one year (this is about 100 percent more than those so reporting in Full Year 1967 program). About 18 percent in summer reported they had been employed in Head Start four to six months suggesting they may have worked in previous summer programs; 10 percent reported seven or more months of Head Start employment reflecting an increase over the 4 percent so reporting in the Summer 1967 program.

**In summary, these data suggest that:**

Project Head Start had reached a large number of its recruitment and training objectives. The program has created opportunities for non-professionals and centers have employed them. Neighborhood residents were being recruited and trained for various positions in the center, both professional and non-professional. While staff members were predominantly young, all age groups were represented. Various ethnic groups were represented in the program with proportions in the direction of the ethnicity of the children and families participating. Volunteers were being recruited and utilized in the centers.

The recruitment of more men and persons specifically trained in the field of early childhood continued to be difficult for the Head Start Centers. Figures on the proportion of men in the program (9 percent to 14 percent) and of the professional educational, psychological and social service staff who had taken courses leading to a degree in early child development (about one-fifth) had remained the same as the 1967 programs. On the other hand, training was an active component and appeared to have responded to the need for more personnel specifically trained in early childhood education. That an increased number of full year staff had been employed in Head Start before suggests that such training had been a sound investment.

This report has described the Project Head Start children and their families, the Centers, and Program components, and staff in 1968 as fully as the data permit. Where possible, those areas in which some centers experienced difficulties have been highlighted and the successes of the program documented as an aid to program planners. For the most part, while the data did suggest some centers were having problems in achieving all of the objectives of the components of the Project Head Start program, steady progress toward these objectives was reflected in 1968 compared to previous programs.

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1. A detailed report on trends is planned in the future to cover Project Head Start programs over a five-year period 1965-1970.

2. Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Statistical Abstracts of the U.S., Washington, D.C., Government Printing Office, 1969, pp. 213, 323-4, 35.

# LEARNING TO READ THROUGH THE ARTS

## *(ED186863)*

Title I Children's Program:
Learning to Read Through the Arts
The Board of Education of the City of New York
Developer/Demonstrator Project,
National Diffusion Network
United States Office of Education

Bernadette C. O'Brien
Project Director
1980

## OVERVIEW

The Title I Children's Program: Learning to Read Through the Arts, The Board of Education of the City of New York, Developer/Demonstrator Project, National Diffusion Network, United States Office of Education is an individualized reading program designed to improve reading skills through the integration of a total art program with a total reading program. This experiential program was founded as a remedial reading program for children who need to improve their reading skills.

The program has since been adopted in urban and rural school systems, not only as a remedial reading program but as a developmental or enrichment reading program as well. This year, the program has also been designed to service special education children at the Developer/Demonstrator sites.

Since its inception in 1971, the program has served several thousand children, providing a stimulating and meaningful learning experience. The program is designed not only to improve reading skills, but also to promote increased interest in reading and other academic curriculum areas.

Artist teachers, reading teachers and classroom teachers work as a team to improve reading and reading skills through the student's involvement and interest in the arts. Listening, speaking, reading and writing techniques are stressed in the reading-oriented arts workshops. An individualized, diagnostic, prescriptive approach to reading is stressed in the reading workshops.

In the spring of 1978, the program expanded and opened sites in the five boroughs of Manhattan, Staten Island, Queens, Brooklyn, and the Bronx, in New York City. In the fall of 1979, a second site was opened in Brooklyn, making a total of six sites in New York City. A special education component of the program was also established to service children in four boroughs, at our Manhattan, Queens, Brooklyn and the Bronx sites. The program received national recognition when the American Institute of Research for the National Right to Read Effort chose it as one of the twelve exemplary reading programs in the United States. Several states have adopted or utilized many aspects of the program for their school system, including Arkansas, California, New Jersey, New York, and Wyoming. Recent adoptions are in Minnesota, North Carolina, Rhode Island and Tennessee. The program is nationally validated by the Joint Dissemination Review Panel of the United States Office of Education, and selected by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare as one of thirty-three exemplary Title I Programs in the nation. It is also a state validated program. The Title I Children's Program is a Developer/Demonstrator Project of the United States Office of Education, National Diffusion Network.

## PHILOSOPHY

How children learn and how they learn most effectively has often been a subject of debate. The learning process involves many areas of study - reading, writing and mathematics, to name but a few. Reading involves subject matter, be it science, humanities, or any of the innumerable topics one might choose from. The Learning to Read Through the Arts Program employs the arts as a core for learning. The process involves reading for information, interest, pleasure and/or appreciation.

Several learning styles are offered to the child in the program as a means of learning. Through planned lessons, the children move back and forth between concrete (nonverbal) and abstract (verbal) types of experiences. Through the various activities of listening, speaking, reading, and writing in both the reading-oriented arts and reading workshops, specific skills are reinforced, and the child is able to transfer knowledge from one area to another.

The program addresses itself to students who are at an age when their ideas about art are not yet wholly formed and they are most receptive to creative inspiration. When given encouragement and the opportunity, most young people can and will express themselves creatively. The students are involved in learning with all their senses and develop an awareness of their physical and mental capacities. The success and sense of achievement gained from completing a work of art usually gives the student confidence which can then be transferred and applied to other areas of learning. Successful achievements in reading reinforce those in the arts and vice versa. If a student is able to read material and apply the information to some practical purpose (e.g., painting a picture), he or she has a better chance of recalling what has been read. The mastery of arts and reading skills provides incentive for the student to move on to new achievements.

## ESSENTIAL COMPONENTS

- STAFF Artist Teacher
  Reading Teacher
  Classroom Teacher
  Guidance Counselor or Social Worker (optional)
- READING-ORIENTED ARTS WORKSHOPS
- FIELD TRIPS AND/OR SPECIAL EVENTS
- READING WORKSHOPS
- LEARNING TO READ THROUGH THE ARTS EXHIBITION
- PERFORMING ARTS AND FILM FESTIVAL (IF APPROPRIATE)
- PARENTS' WORKSHOPS
- PRE-SERVICE TRAINING FROM DEVELOPER/DEMONSTRATOR PROJECT
- IN-SERVICE TRAINING AT ADOPTION SITE (ONGOING)
- TEACHER-MADE MATERIALS
- EVALUATION

## STAFF

- ARTIST TEACHERS
- READING TEACHERS
- CLASSROOM TEACHERS
- GUIDANCE COUNSELOR OR SOCIAL WORKER (OPTIONAL)

Trained in the Learning to Read Through the Arts methodology, qualified artists/artist teachers and reading teachers work together with the classroom teachers using an integrated and unified approach to teaching. A guidance counselor or social worker may be included as part of the team to provide additional input and assistance in working with the staff, students and parents.

## READING-ORIENTED ARTS WORKSHOPS

The artist teachers use a listening, speaking, reading and writing technique in the Reading-Oriented Arts Workshops through the Learning to Read Through the Arts language experience approach to reading. While working on a specific art project, the student listens to instruction, verbalizes about the experience and records information, directions and creative writing in master and individual journals. Reading proficiency is developed through the student's needs for literal comprehension, following directions, drawing inferences, thinking sequentially, making critical judgments and using specific vocabulary in reading and writing in order to create and complete the art project.

The child learns through the essential learning process of moving from a concrete (non-verbal) experience to the abstract (verbal) experience. Children use reading skills creatively in writing movie scripts and poetry, reading dramatic skits and writing stories to accompany paintings and other artworks.

The Reading-Oriented Arts workshops may include such areas as Dance, Music, Theater, Filmmaking, Photography, Puppetry, Drawing, Painting, Sculpture, Mixed Media, Printmaking, World Crafts and Multi-Activities.

## READING WORKSHOPS

The reading teachers use an individualized, prescriptive, remedial, developmental or enrichment approach. Reading weaknesses are diagnosed through the Wisconsin Design Tests of Reading Skill Development, the California Achievement Test in Reading and informal diagnostic testing by the teachers. The reading workshop focuses on vocabulary and reading skills including comprehension, study and speed skills. A multi-media library reading period in which children select books on the arts to read for interest, appreciation and information is also a part of the reading workshop. During this period, students may also use filmstrips, records and games in reading-related activities. Children work with the teachers individually or in groups to improve the particular skills they need to strengthen.

## TEACHER-MADE MATERIALS

Since the program uses an experiential approach to learning, most materials are teacher-made. The content of the reading relates to and depends upon the ongoing arts projects, rather than a prepared reading text. Student research and creative writing is also encouraged.

## FIELD TRIPS AND SPECIAL EVENTS

The resources of museums, cultural institutions, educational resource centers and libraries are utilized in the communities where the program site is located. Special programs which relate to the content of the reading-oriented arts and reading workshops are arranged for the students on field trip days. Special events and/or performances are also brought to the program.

## LEARNING TO READ THROUGH THE ARTS EXHIBITION

A high point of the program, the Exhibition provides the students in the visual arts workshops with the opportunity to display their own works.

## PERFORMING ARTS AND FILM FESTIVAL

If the adopter site uses performing arts workshops in its program, this festival is given so that the students in the performing arts and film workshops may present what they have learned and created to an audience. Both the Exhibition and the Performing Arts and Film Festival usually take place once or twice during the program year.

## PARENTS' WORKSHOPS

An important part of the program is the parents' workshops, which enable the parents to understand the program, how children learn, and have the opportunity to discuss family living. Parents may also serve as workshop or field trip assistants and/or become members of the program's Parents Advisory Board.

## PRE-SERVICE TRAINING FROM DEVELOPER/ DEMONSTRATOR PROJECT

Pre-service training (at least 12 hours) is necessary for both the art and reading specialists, classroom teachers, and other staff prior to implementing the program. This is provided by the Developer/Demonstrator Project at the adoption site (or at the Developer/Demonstrator site if so requested). Lectures, demonstrations, slides and hands-on workshops provide the staff with the information and understanding necessary for implementation. Each participant would receive a 1) **Staff Training Handbook**, 2) **Curriculum Guide-Reading-Oriented Arts Workshops Lessons**, 3) **Curriculum Guide-Reading Workshop-Directed Reading Lessons**, and 4) **Reading-Oriented Arts Workshop Course of Study**.

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## PRE-SERVICE TRAINING MATERIALS FOR ADOPTION SITE

### Staff Training Handbook

- Sample Reading-Oriented Arts Workshop Courses of Study
- Reading-Oriented Arts Workshop lesson plan outline
- Demonstration Reading-Oriented Arts Workshop lesson plans
- Demonstration Integrated Field Trip lesson.
- Diagnostic Student Profiles coordinated with California Achievement Test (Reading) and Wisconsin Design
- Directed Reading lesson plan outline
- Demonstration Reading Workshop lesson plans
- Demonstration Library and Study Skill lessons
- Management materials for implementing criterion reference programs
- Specialized Vocabulary lists
- Vocabulary - Norm-reference words list
- Informational material to implement a multi-media library
- Learning Center Design for the Reading-Oriented Arts Workshop and Reading Workshop
- Learning to Read Through the Arts Language Experience Instructional Material
- Bibliography of children's books on the arts
- Teacher's Reference bibliography
- Parents Workshop agendas
- Content for in-service training at adoption site Performing Arts and Film Festival
- Sample Evaluation Designs

## CURRICULUM GUIDE-READING-ORIENTED ARTS WORKSHOPS LESSON

This guide consists of lesson plans from the visual, film and performing reading-oriented arts workshops.

## CURRICULUM GUIDE-READING WORKSHOP-DIRECTED READING LESSONS

These directed reading lessons are coordinated with the reading skills of levels A, B, C, D, and E of the Wisconsin Design Tests of Reading Skill Development.

## READING-ORIENTED ARTS WORKSHOPS COURSES OF STUDY

The courses of study outline the objectives, project activities and evaluation procedures for the program year's visual, film and performing reading-oriented arts workshops.

## EVALUATION

### Evaluation Results 1976-1979

The evaluation results of past programs indicate that the Title I Children's Program: Learning to Read Through the Arts, The Board of Education of the City of New York has been effective in improving the reading skill of students in the program.

The 1978-1979 results of the California Achievement Test (Reading) reflect a positive Treatment Effect of 18.41 Normal Curve Equivalency (NCE) for students in the program. Any Treatment Effect greater than zero is considered evidence that students have benefited from their participation in a program.

The NCE score distribution by quartile reflects a dramatic shift in NCE scores for students in the program, especially those whose pre-test NCE scores were in the lowest quartile. Forty-seven percent (47%) of the students entering the program had NCE scores between 1 and 25 on the pre-test. On the post test, only 6% of the students had NCE scores between 1 and 25.

In 1978-1979, the Wisconsin Design Tests of Reading Skill Development were also administered to students. Analysis of the data indicates that during the 28-week program, 82% of the students mastered 5 or more skills not previously mastered and that 78% of the students mastered 6 or more skills not previously mastered.

In 1977-1978, the Wisconsin Design Tests of Reading Skill Development were used to assess student performance. During the 16-week program, 70% of the students mastered over 3 skills which they had not mastered prior to their participation in the program.

In 1976-1977, the California Achievement Test (Reading) was administered to program students. Students in all three grades, 4th, 5th and 6th, showed gain scores that were statistically significant at better than the .01 level of significance. Over the adjusted 4-month treatment interval, the gain in grade equivalents for 4th graders was 4.5 months, for 5th graders was 1.0 school year and for 6th graders was 1.1 school year.

At the time of National Validation, the 1972-1973 Evaluation Report presented findings that after participating in the 6-month program, Level 2 students improved 1.78 school years (based on a 10-month school year) and Level 3 students improved 8.4 months (based on a 10-month school year) on the California Achievement Test in Reading.

During each of the last three years, the performance of students in Title I Children's Program: Learning to Read Through the Arts has surpassed the criterion of success set for the program.

The sizable increases in mean NCE score at each grade level and for the entire program demonstrate the effectiveness of the Title I Children's Program: Learning to Read Through the Arts in improving the reading skills of students in the program.

Evaluation reports of the Developer/Demonstrator site are available upon request.

## EVALUATION DESIGNS

Evaluation services are provided by the Developer/Demonstrator site. Each adoption program is evaluated at the end of the program year using data collected at the adoption site throughout the year and the students pre and post test results.

Evaluation designs for the major objectives of the program are available to the adoption site from the Developer/Demonstrator project. The evaluation designs will basically consist of the following materials:

- Administration of Pre and Post Tests such as the California Achievement Test (Reading) and the Wisconsin Design Tests of Reading Skills Development
- Parent, Child and Staff Surveys
- Interviews
- Growth Studies
- On-Site Observational Reports

## REPLICATION

Procedures for implementing the program:

- Identification of target population
- Identification of community resources
- Selection of essential staff
- Participation in a 2-day pre-service training session
- Agreement to adopt the essential components of the program

## COST OF REPLICATION

Limited funding is available through the Developer/Demonstrator Project with which to provide preservice training, and the Staff Training Handbook, Curriculum Guide-Reading-Oriented Arts Workshops Lessons, Curriculum Guide-Reading Workshops-Directed Reading Lessons, and Reading-Oriented Arts Workshops Courses of Study for the participating teachers at the adoption site. Individual funding arrangements are made between the adoption site and the Developer/Demonstrator. The cost of implementing the program is approximately $343.00 per each yearly workshop consisting of twenty-five students.

## DISSEMINATION SERVICES

The Title I Children's Program: Learning to Read Through the Arts, The Board of Education of the City of New York, Developer/Demonstrator Project, National Diffusion Network, United States Office of Education is the only Learning to Read Through the Arts Program in New York City that is a state and nationally validated Developer/Demonstrator Project.

This exemplary program has been adopted (replicated) in various states throughout the United States. A sample of the geographical spread of adopter sites includes: Arkansas, California, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Rhode Island, Tennessee and Wyoming.

The program is available for adoption (replication) in schools, districts, and school systems under the United States Office of Education National Diffusion Network.

## CULTURAL INSTITUTIONS

Interaction between the program and cultural institutions is an important aspect of the program. Special programs complementing the content of the Reading-Oriented Arts Workshops and the Reading Workshops are provided by cultural institutions for the students on field trip and special event days. The Title I Children's Program: Learning to Read Through the Arts is associated with the following institutions in New York City:

- Staten Island Children's Museum
- The Bronx Museum of the Arts
- The Queens Museum
- New York Aquarium
- The Brooklyn Museum
- Ballet Hispanico of New York

# IF IT IS BROKE, FIX IT!
# (HOW TO MAKE A COMPENSATORY PROGRAM WORK)[1]
## *(ED247354)*

Karen Banks Carsrud
Austin Independent School District
1984

In the wake of several reports on what is wrong with compensatory education today (Kimbrough & Hill, 1981; Mullin & Summers, 1983; Doss & Holley, 1982; Good, 1982; Glass & Smith, 1977) the local school district administrator may still be confused concerning alternatives to the "flawed" status quo. Most of the reports are descriptive, not prescriptive. In general, the studies document problems or relationships among variables, not policy recommendations or solutions for the local school district. Among the many problems that have been described as resulting from implementation of compensatory programs are fragmentation of instruction, diffusion of responsibility for the students' instruction, program interference and cross-subsidy when there are multiple categorical programs being implemented, and labelling or segregating of compensatory education students. Mullin and Summers (1983) even suggest that no approach or program characteristic for compensatory education programs has been found to be consistently effective.

While attempting to extract some positive suggestions from the list of "do nots", even the present author was frustrated and distracted. It is clearly easier to design a poor program than to design a good one. In fact, as a starting point, it actually seemed useful to intentionally design a flawed program, based on the following "tongue-in-check" recommendations for:

### A Prescription for Failure

1) Have vague, general goals for the program. A good example of an objective is: "to improve the achievement of the students in the program."

2) Make the supervision of program staff as confusing as possible. Teachers in the program could have multiple three supervisors: the principals of the schools they serve, a grant administrator, an instructional supervisor from the District's central office, and perhaps several grade level supervisors. On the other hand, they may have no one supervising them, but be sent to the campus to teach students without any administrative support structure to provide guidance and feedback.

3) Be sure to emphasize the separateness of the compensatory program–superimpose it upon the regular school curriculum and activities, and do not worry about coordination and integration of the compensatory program with the regular curriculum. As long as the student is receiving instruction, it will be beneficial. The student can determine how to make it all fit together.

4) Serve low-achieving students with any and all compensatory programs for which they qualify. If a student qualifies for Special Education, Bilingual, Migrant and regular Chapter 1 programs, serve that student with all of these programs.

5) Spread responsibility for the students' instruction among multiple individuals: the classroom teacher, the special education teacher, a Chapter 1 teacher, etc.

6) Hire teacher aides to help the classroom teacher with instruction for compensatory program students. Classroom teachers really appreciate having an aide to help them.

7) Avoid the expense of process evaluation. Not only is it more likely to offend or threaten someone than is outcome evaluation, you might actually have to make some program changes as a result of the knowledge gained.

8) For your outcome evaluation, use criterion-referenced tests to measure achievement gains. Thus, no one will notice if students do not improve their achievement status relative to national norms. If they master the concepts measured by the test, what more can you ask?

Some of these suggestions may seem amusing–not because they are totally unheard of, but because we have seen them implemented in the real world all too often. Before considering the alternatives, it may be useful to briefly consider some historical aspects of compensatory education.

The 1964 Civil Rights Act and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 really marked the beginning of a new focus in education: compensatory programs. Meeting the needs of disadvantaged students became a high priority and special programs and resources were devoted to supplemental instruction for these students. The programs were, by definition and origin, separate from the regular school program, and this has caused many organizational problems for schools, teachers, and students.

The semantic argument continues about whether supplemental instruction within the school day is actually possible. The student who receives two periods of reading instruction is missing something else unless the school day is extended. Because the argument over the concept of supplemental is a semantic one does not mean it is trivial. For many years, the fear of audit exceptions has caused local school districts to structure externally funded, compensatory programs in such a way that the instruction was discrete, definable, and different from regular instruction. Even programs where the supplement versus supplant requirements were less evident (such as Title VII, some state funded programs, and ESAA, where restrictions primarily concerned financial rather than instructional supplanting) were inevitably affected by the general atmosphere of this era of separation.

One recent article suggests that the early problems which occurred in implementing compensatory programs have largely been solved (Rabe & Peterson, 1983.) Perhaps this is true, but the perception of the present author is that there are real, concrete problems remaining for many local districts. Fortunately, several tools exist that school districts can use to help solve these problems, as the suggestions below indicate. (These are techniques that may be valuable, even if the program currently seems to be adequate.)

- Conduct a study to determine the extent to which students in the district are served by multiple compensatory programs. In an annual study, the Austin I.S.D. determines how many students are served by each combination of compensatory programs at each campus. (Attachment A includes some sample computer output from this annual report.) The report indicates the campuses where problems might exist, and can be quite useful in looking at patterns across the District.

- Conduct on-site observations of the program's activities. As part of its evaluations of compensatory programs, Austin I.S.D. has at various times conducted from 50 to 350 full-day classroom observations during a school year (Ligon & Doss, 1982; Carsrud, 1982). The considerable expense of such a massive effort is not possible in many districts, but any observations can be beneficial in identifying problem areas, even when conducted on a more limited basis. For example, a single student in the program can be observed for an entire day. If possible, more students can be observed, but even one student's day at one school (if it is a typical one) should provide some hints. How many adults does the student interact with? How complicated is the educational process for that student? Do the various units of the instruction for that student seem integrated? Is the student segregated from high-achieving students?

  A teacher in the program can also be observed to determine what factors affect his or her performance, planning, preparation, and activities. With whom does the teacher interact, other than students? How many students, where, and for how long? What was the size of the instructional groups with which the teacher worked? All of these questions can be partially answered by observing the program in operation.

- Review the curriculum and instructional planning for the regular and compensatory programs. Does the compensatory program focus on the same skills, in the same order, as the students' regular curriculum? Or are the students being taught skills in the regular curriculum without having mastered some of the more basic concepts that the compensatory teacher is trying to teach? Specific curricula and techniques that may be preferable are discussed later in this paper.

This list of assessment tools could be expanded to include teacher interviews, principal interviews, etc. The overall approach, however, should be clear: look at the "process" of the program when deciding what is wrong with it and what changes are needed. In general terms, the types of changes that might be important to make in a particular district might include:

1) Initiate policies that limit the number of students who are served by more than one compensatory program. Emphasize that students served more than one compensatory program actually receive less instructional time than those served by only one or none (Ligon & Doss, 1982). For students in a Special Education program, this policy may involve working with parents and advisory groups to revise the Individualized Educational Plans for these students in order to include the most appropriate activities. In fact, the type of program for every student should be considered on an individual basis. However, the goal of limiting the number of programs per student should be a high priority, in order to limit the confusion, disruption, and loss of instructional time that would otherwise occur. In Austin, students eligible for the Chapter 1 program are served by another program for which they qualify if that program seems better suited to the students' needs. They are skipped over by the Chapter 1 program in such cases, even when they have lower achievement test scores than the students who are served instead.

2) Take further steps to decrease disruptions. This involves a re-evaluation of the ways in which services are delivered. For example, the students in the compensatory program could receive all of their math instruction from one teacher, rather than have one portion taught by the regular classroom teacher and another portion taught by a compensatory teacher. The literature on the negative

effects of pullouts, disruption, lack of coordination, and diffusion of responsibility for instruction (Glass & Smith, 1977; Kimbrough & Hill, 1981; Good, 1982; Doss & Holley, 1982)) would certainly indicate a cumulative supplemental effect on the quality of instruction for this alternative approach. In terms of the quantity of instruction, if measured in achievement gains rather than minutes of instruction scheduled, a supplemental effect is also more probable from this approach. However, note that this approach does segregate students on the basis of ability.

Another option is for the compensatory program teacher to serve as a floating teacher/tutor to work with disadvantaged students when they would normally be doing individual seatwork (Totusek and Matusek, 1978.) Data from classroom observations indicate that more than half of a student's instructional time is spent working alone (Ligon and Doss, 1982.) Research also indicates that low-achieving students do not learn well from individual seatwork (Anderson, et al., 1984). The compensatory program teachers can provide valuable reinforcement and new strategies for completing the assigned work during a time period that might otherwise be wasted for these students.

One final caveat: in some cases, the least disruptive approach for instructing the students may be to pull them out of the regular classroom. If the classroom has 35 students, five of whom are working with one teacher in the corner, the problems of noise and distractions from the other teacher and 30 students may make this approach unproductive. The point is to look at the situation in each case to determine which of the alternatives appears to be least disruptive.

3) Create a mechanism for coordinated planning between the compensatory teacher and the regular program teacher. The Sustaining Effects Study (USED, 1981) suggests that effort spent on planning and assessing student progress has a positive effect on achievement of compensatory students. Attachment B contains some materials developed by staff of the Austin Independent School District to facilitate this coordinated planning by classroom and compensatory teachers.

4) Determine whether the compensatory program funds which are available can be used to lower the PTR for each classroom, rather than to create extra teacher positions in a separate program. Previous reports by the Austin I.S.D. have shown positive effects on students and teachers by using Chapter 1-funded teachers as classroom teachers to create Chapter 1 schoolwide projects (Doss, 1981; Carsrud, 1982; Carsrud, 1983). Earlier in this report, the generally positive effects for reducing PTR were also mentioned (Glass et al., 1982.) Use of compensatory program resources to reduce class size may also reduce the degree of segregation of disadvantaged students within the school or class, because they are no longer pulled out of the regular classroom for special programs.

5) Reorganize the administration of the program. Clarify supervision of compensatory teachers and give them adequate administrative support. Moede and Doss (1983) provide important reasons to have someone at the helm of the program who has sufficient authority to make necessary decisions, and who can devote the time and attention necessary for the program to function as it should.

One solution that has worked fairly well in the Austin I.S.D Chapter 1 program is the creation of three instructional coordinator positions to serve the approximately 25 Chapter 1 schools. (See Attachment C for an organizational chart.) Teachers in the Chapter 1 program are supervised and evaluated by their principals. However, the instructional coordinators provide visible coordination of the program, identify problems and seek solutions that can be used by other schools, and develop materials for coordinated planning. They also can alert a school to any possible problems in its compliance with the Chapter 1 regulations. Of course, the chief instructional administrators must set and enforce policies concerning the program, but the coordinators provide information, clarification, and direct assistance to compensatory and regular teachers and also to principals. The staffing structure for the Chapter 1 program has become the model in the District for improvements in a similar state-funded program that had been less successful.

6) Look for ways to increase the quantity of instructional time. The Sustaining Effects Study (USED, 1981) suggests that this increase will have a positive effect on achievement. If increasing instructional time is emphasized by a person of authority (e.g., principal, curriculum director, superintendent, etc.) instructional time can be increased by teachers without the expenditure of additional funds. However, if the emphasis on maximizing the amount of instructional time decreases, the gains made in instructional time can be lost (Ligon & Doss, 1982).

7) Use program resources to hire teachers, not teacher aides (Stonehill & Anderson, 1982; Kean, et al., 1979; Lee, 1976; Cohn & Millman, 1975.) This finding is based on extensive data. Resist the pressure from classroom teachers who tell you that they need the aides to cope with the extra challenge of disadvantaged students in their classrooms. (One possible exception comes to mind: if you can hire certified teachers to work as aides while waiting for positions as teachers, and structure the environment to deal with problems of labelling and diffusion of responsibility, aides might be effective. However, this approach has not been systematically investigated.)

8) Consider concentrating the program resources at earlier grade levels, including prekindergarten. Much research now exists on the long-term positive effects of prekindergarten on disadvantaged students, including lower rates of retention and special education placement (Lazar & Darlington, 1982; Nieman & Gastright, 1981; Schweinhart & Weikart, 1980.) Furthermore, there is some evidence that there is a more positive impact for compensatory programs at the earlier grade levels, at least for reading programs (USED, 1981.)

9) Consider implementing the techniques and curricula from research studies on mastery learning and cooperative learning. Hyman and Cohen (1975) concluded that learning for mastery is consistently more effective than traditional curricula, and may also tend to counter the effects of teachers' low expectations for children in compensatory programs. Slavin (1980) concludes that cooperative learning techniques are no worse than traditional techniques and in most cases they are significantly better than traditional techniques. There is some indication that cooperative learning techniques can improve students self-esteem.

10) Remember to do intensive staff development with teachers and principals when any changes are made in the program. If they know about the evaluation data or results that indicated a problem existed, the goals underlying the changes, and the research that supports the type of changes being made, then they will be better able to assist rather than interfere with the new directions of the program.

In addition to the already mentioned suggestions, be sure to identify exactly what you want the program to accomplish. Set realistic, specific objectives. Evaluate the program, and use rigorous standards for the evaluation. And don't give up: it can work!

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1. Paper presented to the American Educational Research Association. New Orleans, Louisiana. April 1984.

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# THE EVOLUTION OF EVALUATION: TITLE I TO CHAPTER 1

***(ED269440)***

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## BACKGROUND

In the Johnson White House of 1965, Congress enacted the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA). The largest allocation of ESEA funds was targeted to the then Title I of the Act, and indeed historically Title I now Chapter 1 has emerged as the largest federally supported elementary and secondary program in the nation's history.

Appropriations for the program have grown from $959 million in Fiscal Year 1966 to $3.48 billion in Fiscal Year 1984. The legislation whether initially Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) and now Chapter 1 of the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act of 1981 (ECIA) has as its primary purpose to provide financial assistance to local educational agencies in order to meet the needs of children who are educationally deprived and who live in high impact areas of poverty. This piece of social legislation will come before the Congress again in 1987 for reauthorization hearings. Twenty years plus experience with compensatory programs have yielded a proliferation of experiences, field studies, questions – both answered and unanswered and a number of significant observations as cited by Mary Kennedy (unpublished paper, 1984).

1. The characteristics of the poverty population have changed since the program began 20 years ago, and these changes have raised questions about the nature and extent of students' need for compensatory education.

2. The program's effects on students have been measured repeatedly over the life of the program, and a variety of methods have been used to assess its impact. The weight of this evidence now appears to indicate that, on the whole, the program has a marginal effect on student achievement. This evidence raises questions about the appropriateness of the current structure of compensatory education programs.

3. There has been a considerable growth in knowledge about effective educational practices for disadvantaged children and about effective educational practices in general. That knowledge has raised questions about the extent to which practices known to be effective are being implemented in compensatory education programs, and about the extent to which such practices are feasible with the program's legal and administrative structure.

## ISSUE

Independent of (1) congressional reauthorization hearings, (2) questions on the hill, (3) pressures from constituent groups, lobbyists, educators at the federal, state and local levels, and (4) accountability demands from the General Accounting Office and the like, for twenty plus years the issue has been quite succinct – does the program work? Obviously, this question is then parsed out to smaller subquestions, i.e.

- Who is served by the program?
- What are the services provided?
- How well are the services delivered?
- What do the services cost?
- What are the effects of services on recipients?
- What are the costs and benefits of alternatives?

The information gathered through the evaluative process is obtained to facilitate making judgments or decisions about some aspects of the program. The audiences for the information depend partly on which questions are answered and may include policy makers, managers, oversight groups and the like. This description is of course deceptively simple. Matters become complex once the decision to evaluate is made. With the Title I/Chapter 1 Program the following

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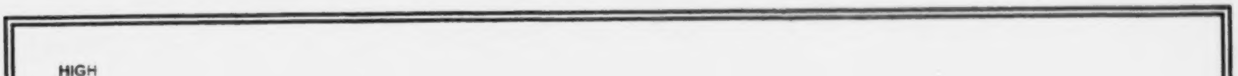
issues have a significant impact on the design and conduct of evaluation studies and on the utility of the evaluation outcomes:

- Title I is not a national program in the true sense of the word. Rather it is a funding source for local educational agencies. LEAs as the eligible recipients design and implement their own "programs" consistent with federal and state guidelines.
- Achievement gains may be difficult to attribute to Title I since high risk children receive many overlays of federal and state compensatory programming.
- On a national level, when one speaks to the effectiveness of Chapter 1 programs, one is dealing with aggregated evaluative information from well over 14,000 different programs operationalized at the local level. Individual programmatic differences are "washed out" in the aggregate and quality control problems with data and data edits as well as sampling errors tend to be aggravated and enhanced at the national levels.
- Evaluation requirements have also shifted, changed and evolved from the inception of the ESEA legislation in 1965 to the present.

The purpose of this paper is: (1) to trace the evaluation requirements of the Title I/Chapter 1 Program since 1966 to the present; (2) to discuss the implications of the evaluations; and, (3) to report on and to discuss the evolution of evaluation during the 20 year period in question.

It is a premise of this paper that evaluations generally moved in four phases from a nadir of low quality, utility and precision in the mid to late sixties (Phase I) to a transition point during the early to mid seventies (Phase II) to a point of high quality, utility and technical rigor in the late seventies with advent of the implementation of the Title I Evaluation and Reporting System (TIERS) (Phase III) to a relaxation of standards and quality given the revised requirements of ECIA (Phase IV). The picture could be viewed much like a sine curve, with current evaluation quality, performance and efforts slipping to the down cycle of the curve. Negative as this may be, the sine curve is cyclical and one can only hope that after reaching a negative amplitude, that the sine curve again will be on the upswing. Perhaps the amplitude bands tighten given the past behavior of the evaluation system as a whole. Pictorially, this could be represented as follows:



Subjective as this pictograph may be in terms of definitions and shape of the curve, there is informal agreement amongst evaluators and program managers at local, state and federal levels that the quality of Chapter 1 evaluations is on the decline.

## PHASE I: THE INCEPTION OF THE ESEA TITLE I PROGRAM EVALUATION FROM 1966-1974

Title I of the ESEA of 1965 (P.L. 89-10, as amended by P.L. 93-380 and P.L. 95-561) was enacted to provide:

> "...financial assistance...to local educational agencies serving areas with concentrations of children from low-income families to expand and improve their educational programs by various means...which contribute particularly to meeting the special educational needs of educationally deprived children..." (ESEA, Title I, Section 101, "Declaration of Policy")

Evaluation of program impact was always a requirement of the federal law and specific evaluation set asides were provided for in the legislation. Delineated below are the evaluation requirements prescribed in the 1966 legislation and a description of the evaluation impact and issues associated with the implementation of these requirements. (See Table I)

**Table I**

**Evaluation from 1966 - 1974**

| Evaluation Requirements | Impact and Issues |
|---|---|
| **An LEA could receive Title I funds only if:**<br>"...procedures are adopted for evaluating...the effectiveness of the programs assisted under this title in meeting the special education needs of educationally deprived children; ...such evaluations will include... objective measurements of educational achievement in basic skills..." (Section 124(g), ESEA Title I).<br>In turn, the SEAs must assure ED that:<br>"Each State Educational agency shall make...periodic reports... evaluating the effectiveness of programs assisted under this title and of particular programs assisted under it in improving the educational attainment of educationally deprived children..." (Section 172, ESEA Title I). | **Title I reports did not provide a consistent basis of information regarding the impact or effectiveness of the Title I program nationally.** Differences in:<br>(1) style and substance of the report<br>(2) evaluation methodology<br>(3) assessment techniques<br>(4) types of participation, and<br>(5) achievement data<br>made the possibility of aggregating, synthesizing and utilizing the data at a national level near or nil. Additionally, it was also not clear if evaluations conducted at the local level would indeed be useful in terms of providing information on program strengths, impact or educational benefits to the students. (English et al., 1982 and Rossi, et al., 1977). |

## PHASE II: TRANSITION YEARS EVALUATION FROM 1974-1978

Given some of the problems cited above respective to the quality of the evaluation process for Title I, specifically the lack of comparability and validity of the data, Congress enacted Section 151 of ESEA Title I in the Education Amendments of 1974 (P.L. 93-380). Section 151 requirements were essentially maintained in Section 183, when the Education Amendments of 1978 (P.L. 95-561) were passed. Presented below are the evaluation requirements which were specified in Section 183 of P.L. 95-561 and a description of the evaluation impact. (See Table II)

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## PHASE III: THE TIERS YEARS EVALUATION FROM 1978-1981

The TIERS years marked the high point of technical quality and rigor with respect to the Title I program at the local, state and national levels. By the time the TIERS system was mandated in 1978, school districts across the nation had already begun phasing in the new models. During the 1976-1977 school year, 20 states had implemented TIERS on a pilot basis. In 1977-78, nearly every state had identified local school districts who were field testing an identified evaluation model. With the advent of 1978-79, most states had begun to fully implement TIERS and to work closely with their Technical Assistance Centers (TACs) and with the U.S. Office of Education. The implementation of TIERS was not without its debates on technical rigor and programmatic issues.

### Table II

### Evaluation from 1974 - 1978

| Evaluation Requirements | Impact and Issues |
|---|---|
| "...(a) Independent Evaluations. - The [Secretary] shall provide for independent evaluations which describe and measure the impact of programs and projects assisted under this title. Such evaluations may be provided by contract or other arrangements, and shall be made by competent and independent persons...<br>"...(b) Evaluation Standards and Schedule. - The [Secretary] shall (1) develop and publish standards for evaluation of program or project effectiveness in achieving the objectives of this title, and (2) develop... a schedule for conducting evaluations... designed to ensure that evaluations are conducted in representative samples of the local educational agencies in any State each year...<br>"...(d) Evaluation Models. - The [Secretary] shall provide to State educational agencies, models for evaluations of all programs conducted under this title... which shall include uniform procedures and criteria to be utilized by local educational agencies and State agencies, as well as by the State educational agency in the evaluation of such programs...<br>"...(e) Technical Assistance. - The [Secretary] shall provide such technical and other assistance as may be necessary to State educational agencies to enable them to assist local educational agencies and State agencies in the development and application of a systematic evaluation of programs in accordance with the models developed by the [Secretary].<br>"...(f) Specification of Objective Criteria. - The models developed by the [Secretary] shall specify the objective criteria which shall be utilized in the evaluation of all programs and shall outline techniques... methodology...for producing data which are comparable on a statewide and nationwide basis."<br>"...(g) Report to Congress. - The [Secretary] shall make a [biennial] report to the respective committees of the Congress having jurisdiction over programs authorized by this title...concerning the results of evaluations of programs and projects required under this section, which shall be...based on the maximum extent possible on objective measures..."<br>"...(i) Maximum Expenditures. - The [Secretary] is authorized to expend such sums as may be necessary to carry out the provisions of this section, but not to exceed one-half of 1 per centum of the amount appropriated for such programs...In carrying out the provisions of this section, the [Secretary] shall place priority on assisting States, local educational agencies, and State agencies to conduct evaluations and shall, only as funds are available after fulfilling that purpose, seek to conduct national evaluations of the program." | These new regulations clearly spoke to the need for providing systematic, comparable and valid data on the effectiveness of Title I programs.<br>In 1974, the U.S. Office of Education awarded a contract to initiate the development of an evaluation and reporting system that could be used by various consumers of evaluation data from Title I programs including local educational agencies, state agencies and the U.S. Office of Education. RMC Research Corporation, the contractor for the development of the models, was charged to develop a set of models, reporting formats and other ancillary supporting forms, documents, materials and training strategies.<br>Field work was conducted (1) to determine the current "state of the art" in terms of evaluation capability at state and local levels and (2) to determine how the models would work in these settings.<br>The summer of 1976 witnessed preliminary work on the development of the Title I Evaluation and Reporting System (TIERS). At this point in time TIERS was not yet nationally implemented nor nationally mandated as the reporting system for Title I. |

Although many state and local educational agencies far surpassed TIERS, in terms of both design and sophistication of their evaluation models, nonetheless, TIERS catalyzed positive movement for the field of evaluation. State agencies without clear mandates or guidelines for program evaluation used the TIERS system as a vehicle for evaluating not only Title I programs but other compensatory evaluation programs. In addition to Title I, other federally funded as well as state funded programs during the seventies also carried with them clear directives for program evaluation. These evaluation set-asides prompted advancements and movement in the overall technology of program evaluation. It is apparent that such advances would not have been possible without this type of external stimulus or indeed pressure. (See Table III)

**Table III**

**Evaluation from 1978 - 1981**

| Evaluation Requirements | Impact and Issues |
|---|---|
| TITLE I EVALUATION AND REPORTING SYSTEM (TIERS)<br>The objective of the Title I Evaluation and Reporting System (TIERS) was to provide meaningful, comparable information about Title I projects at the<br>◆ school building level<br>◆ school district level<br>◆ state level, and<br>◆ federal level<br>Data were collected and/or aggregated on six topics: (1) participation, (2) parent advisory councils (PACs), (3) personnel, (4) training, (5) costs, and (6) impact. Impact data was gathered only from projects in the basic skill areas using one of the three evaluation models:<br>Model A - The norm-referenced model<br>Model B - The control group model<br>Model C - The special regression model | **The implementation of the models as was mentioned above provoked debate from the technical to the programmatic in all** sectors.<br>Operationally, even though 3 implementation models for TIERS were developed, Model A was the only model in use. Use of the other recommended models, or other approved models was extremely rare accounting for only 1 percent of the project evaluations.<br>With respect to model A, concerns were raised about the cumulative effects of statistical artifacts, unrepresentative norms, conversion errors, student selection, test administration procedures, attrition, and practice effects on the validity of estimates derived from TIERS.<br>Despite the technical concerns with the models and resistance in some cases to the implementation of the models, this forced intrusion of the federal government into the mandating of evaluation models at the national level forced state education agencies and local education agencies to take stock of their evaluation procedures. For some states, with strong evaluation units, TIERS posed no burden for unsophisticated states relative to assessment and evaluation technology, the TIERS moved them from the darkness into the light. |

## PHASE IV: POST TIERS EVALUATION FROM 1981 TO PRESENT

The Education Consolidation and Improvement Act of 1981, was passed by Congress on July 31, 1981. All chapters of the act took effect beginning October 1, 1982 and were authorized through FY 1987. It was the Reagan administration's intention through the block grants to shift control over educational policy away from the federal government back to state and local agencies. The budget authority for the block grants in 1982 was reduced to 80 percent of the total sum of the combined programs in 1981.

The basic components of the Act consist of three chapters. Chapter 1, "Financial Assistance to Meet Special Educational Needs of Disadvantaged Children," is a rewrite of ESEA Title I. The new language draws upon provisions in the old ESEA Title I law such as retaining the allocation formula and the emphasis on low-income children, but also provides some simplification and relaxation of previous requirements.

Traditionally, categorical programs have had a strong political lobby and vested interest group to provide their support base. It is no secret that continued funding for these programs has been guaranteed not on the outcomes of the program or evaluation data but by legislation. Accountability is vested in the cloak of regulation, guidelines and procedure. The preservation of an intact Chapter 1-"Financial Assistance to Meet Special Education Needs of Disadvantaged Children" is a manifestation of the power and concern of the special interest groups for disadvantaged students.

For block grants programs, funds must be allocated and utilized in accordance with law, statute and administrative regulation. Accountability for the block grants took three basic forms:

1. descriptive reporting of clients served, fiscal accounting, services offered including program description and implementation process,
2. impact (effectiveness) evaluation, and
3. monitoring of programs by advisory groups

Over the years, educational evaluation, accountability and reporting efforts at national, state and local levels have matured as witnessed by TIERS the Migrant Student Record Transfer System (MSRTS) and many others. The aforementioned are offered as only illustrative examples without comment on technical rigor, adequacy or total acceptance by the evaluation community. The point being made is that evaluation, accountability and program monitoring were coming into their own as tools for enlightened decision-making and program planning and redirection. The sophistication in evaluation is due primarily to maturation of the field itself but in no small part is also due to the valuation demands placed on state and local program managers by the power of federal statute and regulation. Indeed, federal evaluation regulations have done much to catalyze lethargic state and local agencies into more structure, rigor and technical accuracy and adequacy with respect to evaluation planning, implementation and utilization.

Current provisions for evaluation and reporting in the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act of 1981 are minimal but pose significant evaluation problems at the local, state and national levels. (See Table IV).

**Table IV**

**Evaluation from 1981 to Present**

| Evaluation Requirements Education Consolidation and Improvement Act of (1981) | Impact and Issues |
|---|---|
| (d) Records and Information<br>"Each state educational agency shall keep such records and provide such information to the secretary as may be required for fiscal audit and program evaluation (consistent with the responsibilities of the secretary under this chapter)." (Section 555(d) ECIA, Chapter 1).<br>(b) Application Assurances<br>"The application described in subsection (a) shall be approved if it provides assurances satisfactory to the State educational agency that the local educational agency will keep such records and provide such information to the state education agency as may be required for fiscal audit and program evaluation (consistent with the responsibilities of the state agency under this chapter), and that the programs and projects described." (Section 556(b), ECIA, Chapter 1).<br>Sustained Gains<br>(4) "...Will be evaluated in terms of their effectiveness in achieving the goals set for them and that such evaluations shall include objective measurements of educational achievement in basic skills and a determination of whether improved performance is sustained over a period of more than one year." (Section 556(b)(4), ECIA, Chapter 1).<br>16801 | **With the impact of ECIA, Chapter 1 evaluation requirements, which were minimal at best, state directors of Chapter 1 programs officially adopted a stand of continuing the implementation of TIERS even though it was no longer mandated.** The effort was laudable for a system now voluntary. As one can imagine, a system that no longer has binding controls begins to slacken. Informally, the consensus of state directors, evaluators and the federal, state and local levels and practitioners, is that strict evaluation requirements of TIERS are being loosened due to the voluntary nature of the system.<br>◆ Strict cut-offs are being violated<br>◆ Selection and pre-test rules are abrogated<br>◆ Quality control parameters have been slackened<br>◆ Data edits have been reduced<br>◆ Raw data are being crunched<br>◆ Sampling errors are occurring<br>◆ Negative gains are checked<br>◆ Positive gains are not-checked<br>Candidly, one questions the ability to generalize from the data at all, at a national level, given the problems cited above. |

## SUMMARY

The block grant legislation has the ongoing tension of insuring accountability while giving grantees operational flexibility. The Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act and the policy of the current Administration have sharply curtailed Federal participation in block grant administration. The Federal government has chosen to rely more heavily on accountability mechanisms that give a retrospective view or program accomplishments than on others that might involve it more directly in program decision-making. Depending on how these are implemented, and depending on the scope and nature of the States' voluntary efforts to establish and maintain common reporting systems, data collected across the Nation may not be comparable. This may affect the Federal Government's ability to ascertain progress toward its national objectives, should it choose to do so. (General Accounting Office, 1982).

The block grant enacted in 1981 places responsibility for program evaluation at the State level. If the history of the Federal agencies under the earlier block grants can be used to predict the problems that the States will encounter, one would expect the States to differ substantially in the manner and vigor with which they pursue program evaluation. Varieties of strength in current evaluation functions and perceptions about accountability may also make for differences among them. Funding problems associated with recent cutbacks in Federal aid may sharply curtail State evaluations despite the mandate for State evaluation activities. (General Accounting Office, 1982).

Tracking federally supported activities, recipients, and dollars is a major evaluation function. Whether Federal funds support activities that advance national objectives is historically of central interest to the Congress. Tracking weaknesses in the earlier block grant programs aroused congressional concern and led to the creation of management information systems and other such mechanisms. However, the changes in Federal and State responsibilities for evaluation under the new block grants may have opened a gap in the ability to assess nationally how well block grant programs achieve the national objectives that the legislation was designed to address. (General Accounting Office, 1982).

Evaluation systems must be applied uniformly across the States if comparable data are to be collected and analyzed. At present, the Federal agencies are not requiring that uniform data be collected on the 1981 block grants, although voluntary efforts are under way in some areas. The availability of an authoritative future source of national information about (1) the nature of program operations, (2) the levels and types of services available, and (3) the effect of programs on the problems they are intended to address remains in doubt. (General Accounting Office, 1982).

With the Chapter 1 program, the history of evaluation evolution is readily apparent. We are on the declining slope of the sine curve from an evaluation perspective. A number of current efforts are currently under way which will shed more light on the outcomes of Chapter 1 programs. A large grant award was made to the National Institute of Education (now part of the U.S. Department of Education) to study the Chapter 1 program in all of its aspects. The planned activities of this effort include: (1) synthesizing recent data on state agency responses to ECIA, Chapter 1; (2) a survey of school districts; (3) analysis of existing school district records; (4) collection of research syntheses; (5) nature of administrative activities; (6) review of the history of audit exceptions; (7) influence of federal, state and local agencies on their respective policies; (8) review of studies of state compensatory education programs; (9) district procedures for choosing schools and students; (10) study of local allocation of resources; (11) processes by which districts and schools design and deliver services; (12) survey of schools; and, (13) study of students' whole school day. This report will be ready in time for the congressional reauthorization hearings for the Chapter 1 legislation. The General Accounting Office is also in the process of looking at the evolution of evaluation from Title I Chapter to I. It will be interesting to see the results of these investigations as they bear on the program effectiveness issue. Independent of the findings, the constituent lobby for serving the educational needs of disadvantaged children is strong and is a major force to contend with on the Hill in terms of action for this social program that has sustained itself for the past 20 years. As all evaluators know, decisions are often made with or without data in a socio-political environment. As an evaluator would that we could harken back to the rigor of TIERS. It remains to be seen what role evaluation played in the climate of reduced evaluation and reporting requirements at the national, state and local levels.

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# TWENTY YEARS OF FEDERAL COMPENSATORY EDUCATION: WHAT DO WE KNOW ABOUT THE PROGRAM?

*(ED269902)*

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**Abstract**. Chapter 1 of the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act of 1981, like its predecessor, Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, provides Federal funding for compensatory education programs. Throughout its twenty years of existence, the program has been subject to contradictory claims about its purpose and its effectiveness. In this paper, we present the most current data about the program, and compare and contrast recent findings and trends with historical reports on the program. We provide information on the number and types of districts that receive Chapter 1 funds, on the numbers of children served by the program and their relative status on measures of achievement and poverty, and on the effectiveness of program services.

## Program Purpose

Chapter 1, like its predecessor Title I, provides "financial assistance to State and local educational agencies to meet the special needs of educationally deprived children." Congress recognized that children in low-income families have special educational needs, and that concentrations of these children in school districts adversely affected the districts' ability to provide educational programs that met these needs. The Title I legislation specified that the program was "to provide financial assistance ... to local educational agencies serving areas with concentrations of children from low-income families..."

## Distribution of Funds

Given the statement in the law that the program is to serve school districts with large numbers or high concentrations of children from low-income families, one might assume that the funds would be given only to those districts with high proportions of poor children. This is not the case--in fact, Chapter 1 serves about 90 percent of the school districts in the country, and the districts that do not participate tend to be very small, rather than wealthy.

A brief description of the funds allocation process can explain why Chapter 1 is not limited to serving poor districts.

Congress appropriates funds for Chapter 1 each year; the Department of Education (ED) then calculates state and county allocations using a formula which takes into account, among other things, the number of 5 to 17 year old children in low-income families and the average state per-pupil expenditure. A county must have at least 10 eligible children to be eligible for a grant. Almost 8 million poor (or "formula-eligible") children are counted in this allocation formula. States then make allocations to school districts, and the school districts identify eligible school attendance areas with "high" concentrations of children from low-income families. But "high" is a relative term--attendance areas which are eligible in one district might not be eligible if they were part of a poorer district.

## Chapter 1 Allocations

All states, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and the Bureau of Indian Affairs receive Chapter 1 grants. State allocations for the Local Educational Agency Basic Grants portion of the program for the 1983-84 school year, ranged from $280,628,132 (New York) to $3,431,963 (Wyoming). Table 1 presents the allocation patterns of Chapter 1 funds, per child and per poor child. As Table 1 shows, only five states receive allocations greater than $75 per child, or over $500 per poor child.

Table 1

| DOLLARS PER CHILD | | | DOLLARS PER POOR CHILD | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Dollars | Number of States | Percent of States | Dollars | Number of States | Percent of States |
| Under $25 | 0 | ( 0) | Under $300 | 0 | (0) |
| $25-50 | 16 | (31) | $300-349 | 15 | (29) |
| $51-75 | 30 | (59) | $350-399 | 9 | (18) |
| $76-100 | 4 | ( 8) | $400-449 | 10 | (20) |
| Over $100 | 1 | ( 2) | $450-499 | 15 | (29) |
| | | | $500-550 | 2 | (4) |
| **Total** | 51 | | | | |

Based on FY 1984 allocations and 1980 Census counts of children aged 5-17.

States distribute Chapter 1 funds to school districts based on the number of poor children and the state per-pupil expenditure. While the law states that assistance is to be provided to "local education agencies serving areas with concentrations of children from low-income families," it is not the case that districts must have high concentrations of poor children to receive funds. As mentioned earlier, 90 percent of districts receive grants. The districts that do not receive grants, are not, as one might assume, the wealthier districts--they are the very small districts. The likelihood of receiving a Chapter 1 grant is directly related to a district's size, and not so much to its poverty. In 1983-84, 98 percent of school districts with 2,500 or more students received grants, compared to 96 percent of districts with 1,000 to 2,499 students and only 72 percent of districts with under 1,000 students.

Since any district with eligible children may apply for a grant, relatively wealthy districts receive Chapter 1 funds, as shown in Table 2. In the 44 states for which data were available, we found that over 85 percent of the districts which have median family incomes in the top 25 percent of districts in the nation received funds, about the same proportion as in the other quartiles of median family income. (While it appears that a smaller percentage of less wealthy districts receive grants than do wealthy districts, this is because less wealthy districts tend to be smaller.)

Of the districts that were in the top one percent of median family income, nearly 80 percent received grants. While only 16 percent of Chapter 1 funds go to districts in the top quarter of income, this represents about $400 million in Federal assistance.

Table 2

Distribution of Funds by Wealth of District

(Based on 44 states in 1983-84)

| Median Family Income | Percent of Districts with Grants | Percent of Funds |
|---|---|---|
| Highest 25% | 86 | 16 |
| 2nd Highest 25% | 89 | 28 |
| 2nd Lowest 25% | 88 | 37 |
| Lowest 25% | 86 | 20 |

Another way to look at this information is to look at the percentage of districts with various proportions of poor children who receive funds (see Table 3). Districts with over 25 percent of their children in poverty receive 40 percent of the Chapter 1 funds, although they comprise only 15 percent of the districts. However, 38 percent of the districts receiving Chapter 1 grants have less than 10 percent of their children in poverty; the amount these districts receive is approximately 16 percent of the funds, or about $400 million. If this money were to be distrib-uted to districts with high concentrations of poverty (those with over 25 percent poor children) instead, those districts could receive nearly a 40 percent increase in their Chapter 1 grants.

The District Practices Study (Advanced Technology, 1984) found that approximately the same percent of Title I districts--17 percent--had very low (0.1 to 4.9 percent) proportions of their students in poverty as had very high (25 percent and over) proportions of their students in poverty.

**Table 3**

**Allocation of 1983-84 Chapter 1 Funds by Poverty Level of School Districts**

| Percent of Children Aged 5-17 in Poverty | Percent of Districts | Percent of Funds |
|---|---|---|
| Under 5% | 13% | 4% |
| 5.0 - 9.9% | 25% | 12% |
| 10.0 - 14.9% | 22% | 16% |
| 15.0 - 19.0% | 15% | 15% |
| 20.0% - 24.9% | 10% | 13% |
| 25% and over | 15% | 40% |

*Based on 44 States

The District Practices Study (DPS) also looked at the distribution of funds to school districts, and, in addition, looked at distributions to schools. The DPS found that approximately 90 percent of districts received Title I funding during the 1981-82 school year, a similar figure to ED's 1983-84 estimate of about 87 percent (Anderson, 1985). We believe that the lower ED figure is due to missing data--several states, including California, are not included in the later figure--rather than to any decrease in the percent of districts receiving funds.

**Table 4**

**Percent Of Title I/Chapter 1 Districts By Poverty Level**

| | | Percent of Districts | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Percent of Students From Families at or Below Poverty Line | Description | Title I Districts (DPS, 1981-82) | Chapter 1 Districts (ED, 1983-84) |
| 1 - 4.9 | Low Incidence | 17 | 15 |
| 5 - 11.9 | Moderate Incidence | 35 | 33 |
| 12 - 24.9 | High Incidence | 31 | 36 |
| 25 and over | Severe Incidence | 17 | 16 |

## How are schools selected for Chapter 1?

Once school districts receive their allocations, resources are distributed to schools with the highest concentrations of poor children. In general, "high" means above average (for the district), or greater than 25 percent of the children in poverty. And, for districts with "no wide variance" in poverty levels, all schools can be considered eligible. The law and regulations grant districts some additional flexibility in how attendance areas may be selected; for instance, districts may decide to focus services on particular grade spans, and would only then have to rank schools serving those grade spans. Overall, nearly three-fourths of the school districts provided Title I funds to all eligible schools.

The DPS found that the most common source districts used to select schools was free or reduced price lunch counts. These counts are good proxy measures of poverty, and result in the schools with the highest concentrations of poverty in each district being selected for Chapter 1. However, while schools are ranked within districts, no external criteria of need are applied. Given the very different levels of poverty across Chapter 1 districts, this procedure means that schools which are relatively needy, and thus served, in one district might be relatively wealthy, and thus not served, in another. If we were to rank schools across districts, or across the nation, we would find many unserved schools with higher poverty rates than schools which were served.

The Sustaining Effects Study (SES), conducted by the System Development Corp. and completed in 1983, found that at the elementary school level, about half the schools with less than 20 percent of their children in poverty nevertheless participated in Title I. Of those schools with more than 80 percent of their children in poverty, about 85 percent participated.

## Selecting Students

Once Chapter 1 schools are identified, students attending them (or students who reside in the attendance area but who attend private schools) are selected to participate in the program based upon educational, not economic, criteria. The result of this statutory selection requirement is that many non-poor children are served by Chapter 1.

## Poverty and Participation

The SES found that more non-poor than poor students received Title I services, a finding that has been widely cited as a failing of the program. The SES found that in 1976-77, approximately 1,280,000 poor students and 1,693,000 non-poor students received Title I services, while approximately 2,500,000 poor students received neither Title I nor other compensatory services (see Table 5). The SES also found that more low-achieving[1] students did not receive services than received services.

**Table 5**

**Percentage and Number of Students Receiving Various Compensatory Education Services by Family Economic Status (from SES Final Report)**

| Economic Status | Compensatory Education (CE) Status<br>Title I or Title I and Other CE | Other CE Only | No CE at CE School | No CE at Non-CE School | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Poor | 29% | 11% | 53% | 7% | 100% |
| Non-Poor | 11% | 10% | 64% | 16% | 101% |
| | | | **Number of Students** | | |
| Poor | 1,230,000 | 443,000 | 2,199,000 | 309,000 | 4,131,000 |
| Non-Poor | 1,693,000 | 1,551,000 | 10,065,000 | 2,516,000 | 15,825,000 |
| **Total** | 2,923,000 | 1,994,000 | 12,264,000 | 2,825,000 | 20,006,000 |

In fact, given the requirements of the statute, and the demographics of the populations involved, that finding should not have been very surprising.

Critics of the program have often equated proper targeting with expenditure on poor children, despite the fact that the law specifically requires that children be selected based on their educational, not economic, disadvantagement. Walberg (1984) cited prior studies to highlight the issue, stating that "Many poor children, as much as 100 percent in some school districts, are not reached at all; and substantial fractions of funds, more than half in many instances, are spent on non-poor children."

He viewed this as an inaccuracy in implementation, which "produces two kinds of arbitrary governmental favoritism—spending extra money on some poor children and not others, and spending extra money on some non-poor children and not others (Walberg, 1984, p. 12)."

Yet, despite a law that specifically requires that children not be selected on the basis of economic status, and given a ratio of non-poor children to poor children of almost 4:1, the ratio of non-poor to poor children in Title I was only slightly above 1:1. In other words, poor children participated in Title I at triple the rate of non-poor children.

## Educational Achievement and Participation

Chapter 1 participants are, on the average, substantially more educationally disadvantaged than non-participants. The higher the grace level examined, the more disadvantaged the Chapter 1 group tends to be.

The relationship between educational achievement level and participation in compensatory education has been examined in many studies, including the SES and the DPS, and in annual data collected from states and analyzed by ED. Table 6 and Table 7 present, respectively, the average reading and mathematics achievement levels of Chapter 1 participants in school year 1983-84.

### Table 6
### Chapter 1 Participants' Reading Achievement
### School Year 1983-84

| | Annual Testing Cycle | | | | | Fall-to-Spring Testing Cycle | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Grade | Weighted Number Tested | Percentile | | NCE[2] | | Weighted Number Tested | Percentile | | NCE | |
| | | Pre | Post | Pre | Post | | Pre | Post | Pre | Post |
| 2 | 93,959 | 29 | 31 | 39 | 40 | 182,490 | 21 | 36 | 33 | 43 |
| 3 | 115,160 | 24 | 29 | 35 | 38 | 158,221 | 20 | 32 | 32 | 40 |
| 4 | 119,437 | 24 | 29 | 35 | 38 | 140,961 | 20 | 32 | 32 | 40 |
| 5 | 121,383 | 23 | 28 | 35 | 38 | 121,558 | 20 | 30 | 32 | 39 |
| 6 | 105,021 | 23 | 28 | 35 | 38 | 105,666 | 20 | 30 | 32 | 39 |
| 7 | 65,246 | 23 | 27 | 35 | 37 | 69,429 | 20 | 28 | 32 | 38 |
| 8 | 65,826 | 23 | 27 | 34 | 37 | 49,866 | 20 | 28 | 32 | 38 |
| 9 | 31,349 | 23 | 25 | 34 | 36 | 30,818 | 18 | 26 | 31 | 36 |
| 10 | 13,489 | 18 | 20 | 31 | 32 | 17,992 | 18 | 24 | 31 | 35 |
| 11 | 7,967 | 17 | 18 | 30 | 30 | 9,737 | 15 | 20 | 28 | 32 |
| 12 | 4,506 | 16 | 16 | 29 | 29 | 5,873 | 14 | 20 | 27 | 32 |

### Table 7
### Chapter 1 Participants' Mathematics Achievement
### School Year 1983-84

| | Annual Testing Cycle | | | | | Fall-to-Spring Testing Cycle | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Grade | Weighted Number Tested | Percentile | | NCE | | Weighted Number Tested | Percentile | | NCE | |
| | | Pre | Post | Pre | Post | | Pre | Post | Pre | Post |
| 2 | 54,790 | 35 | 40 | 42 | 45 | 63,922 | 21 | 42 | 33 | 46 |
| 3 | 64,629 | 31 | 37 | 40 | 43 | 68,215 | 20 | 38 | 32 | 43 |
| 4 | 72,558 | 28 | 34 | 38 | 41 | 68,328 | 22 | 39 | 34 | 44 |
| 5 | 77,677 | 28 | 35 | 37 | 42 | 65,350 | 22 | 36 | 33 | 42 |
| 6 | 68,235 | 28 | 35 | 38 | 42 | 55,455 | 22 | 36 | 34 | 42 |
| 7 | 39,072 | 25 | 31 | 35 | 39 | 36,483 | 23 | 34 | 35 | 41 |
| 8 | 45,842 | 28 | 33 | 38 | 41 | 28,589 | 23 | 32 | 34 | 40 |
| 9 | 22,635 | 30 | 32 | 39 | 40 | 18,012 | 21 | 32 | 33 | 40 |
| 10 | 8,372 | 24 | 24 | 35 | 35 | 7,485 | 23 | 29 | 34 | 38 |
| 11 | 5,096 | 25 | 26 | 36 | 37 | 3,297 | 21 | 30 | 33 | 39 |
| 12 | 3,352 | 22 | 25 | 34 | 36 | 1,859 | 22 | 29 | 34 | 38 |

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As Table 6 and Table 7 show, the relative achievement status of Chapter 1 reading participants is lower than that of mathematics participants, and more disadvantaged students tend to be served in the higher grades.

- At the elementary school level, the average post-Chapter 1 student scored at about the 30th percentile in reading and at the 35th percentile in mathematics.
- In junior high, average post-test scores at the 27th percentile in reading and the 32nd percentile in mathematics are typical.
- In high school, Chapter 1 is a program serving relatively few, but very low-achieving, students. The average reading score of a high school reading program participant is around the 19th percentile, and for a typical mathematics participant is around the 27th percentile.

### Number of Students Served

Information on the number of students served by the program is available both from national studies and from annual State performance reports.

ED first began collecting uniform data from states on the numbers of students served in the 1979-80 school year, and data are now available through the 1983-84 school year. These data are presented in Table 8, and they show that while about five million students were served each year, these numbers have fluctuated somewhat. The data from the State reports have been criticized as being inaccurate and unreliable, due to inaccuracies in State reporting, so we compared the estimates from the state reports to those from the District Practices Study (see Table 9) to assess the amount of error in the State-provided data.

**Table 8**
**Number of Children Served in Chapter 1**
**School Years 1979-80 Through 1983-84**

| | 1979-80 | | 1980-81 | | 1981-82 | | 1982-83 | | 1983-84 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Grade Span** | **Number** | **%** | **Number** | **%** | **Number** | **%** | **Number** | **%** | **Number** | **%** |
| Pre-K and K | 362,082 | ( 7) | 365,371 | ( 7) | 332,355 | ( 7) | 343,658 | ( 7) | 348,863 | ( 7) |
| Grades 1-3 | 2,030,204 | (38) | 1,926,915 | (36) | 1,733,416 | (36) | 1,733,040 | (37) | 1,773,305 | (37) |
| Grades 4-6 | 1,789,199 | (33) | 1,763,536 | (33) | 1,632,873 | (34) | 1,579,517 | (33) | 1,565,784 | (32) |
| Grades 7-9 | 939,427 | (17) | 986,493 | (19) | 886,111 | (18) | 812,182 | (17) | 873,946 | (18) |
| Grades 10-12 | 237,877 | ( 4) | 259,018 | ( 5) | 268,429 | ( 6) | 226,922 | ( 5) | 284,041 | ( 6) |
| **Total** | **5,402,311** | | **5,301,488** | | **4,866,108** | | **4,731,351** | | **4,846,050** | |

**NOTE:** Columns do not sum to the totals because some students who were served in ungraded classes are not included in the grade span breakouts.

With the likelihood that the DPS may be slightly underestimating the participation count for Chapter 1, and the almost certainty that some states overcount their Chapter 1 participants, our best estimate of Chapter 1 participation for the 1981-82 school year is about 4,750,000 students.

Two of the major reasons for inaccuracy in state-reported data include counting children in state compensatory education programs as Chapter 1 participants (in one large state alone, this may account for almost a 40 percent inflation in the Chapter 1 participation count), and the use of unreliable sampling plans to estimate statewide data.

### Proportion of Students Served by Chapter 1

Nationwide, about 10 percent of children received Chapter 1 services in 1983-84, but there was considerable variation across states, with from 4 percent to 30 percent served. This variation is due both to differences in proportions of poor children and to differences in how services are concentrated.

### Table 9
### Number of Students Served in the 1981-82 School Year: District Practices Study and State Performance Reports

| Grade | DPS Estimate | State Estimate |
|---|---|---|
| Pre-K | 45,228 | 43,771 |
| Kindergarten | 230,778 | 288,578 |
| 1 | 463,632 | 560,269 |
| 2 | 642,327 | 585,953 |
| 3 | 526,237 | 587,194 |
| 4 | 515,085 | 580,143 |
| 5 | 494,872 | 561,964 |
| 6 | 420,928 | 490,766 |
| 7 | 295,383 | 364,933 |
| 8 | 248,575 | 302,348 |
| 9 | 167,126 | 218,830 |
| 10 | 111,149 | 133,479 |
| 11 | 70,203 | 77,706 |
| 12 | 47,388 | 57,244 |
| **Total** | **4,279,111** | **4,866,103*** |

* Includes ungraded students

### Table 10
### Percent of Children Served in Chapter 1 1983-84 School Year

| Percent Served | Number of States |
|---|---|
| 4.0 - 7.49 | 21 |
| 7.5 - 9.9 | 21 |
| 10.0 - 12.49 | 5 |
| 12.5 - 14.9 | 2 |
| 15.0 - 17.49 | 1 |
| 17.5 - 20.0 | 1 |

## Participation of Private School Students

Of the 4.8 million children receiving Chapter 1 services in 1983-84, just over 4 percent attended private schools. Table 11 shows the numbers of private school students who participated in Chapter 1 since 1979-80.

### Table 11
### Number and Percent of Chapter 1 Children in Nonpublic Schools

| | Number Served | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Year | Nonpublic | Total | Percent Nonpublic |
| 1979-80 | 189,554 | 5,402,311 | 3.5 |
| 1980-81 | 213,499 | 5,301,488 | 4.0 |
| 1981-82 | 184,084 | 4,866,108 | 3.8 |
| 1982-83 | 177,161 | 4,731,351 | 3.7 |
| 1983-84 | 225,123* | 4,846,050 | 4.6 |

*California reported 34,567 of the 47,962 additional students served in 1983-84.

However, the pattern of private school participation is likely to change in the 1985-86 and 1986-87 school years, given the implications of the Supreme Court's Felton decision. In ruling that public school staff cannot legally provide services to students in religiously-affiliated private school buildings, the Felton decision has created a precarious situation both for the public school administrators and the private school students. On the one hand, a school district is required by the Chapter 1 statute to provide "equitable" services to children who attend private school; on the other hand, requiring that the services be provided at a "neutral" site almost certainly results in difficulties in implementing educationally sound programs.

And while ED, the courts, the states, the public schools and the private schools all attempt to reach consensus on appropriate vehicles for providing services to religious-school students, there is growing evidence that private school children--perhaps as many as one-third of those who participated in 1984-85--are not receiving any services in the interim.

## What is the Cost of Providing Services to Students?

Nationally, about $600 is available per Chapter 1 child. This ranges from a reported low of $280 in California to a high of $1,133 in Alaska. We suspect that the California figure is low because students receiving state-funded compensatory education services are included in the count of Chapter 1 students, while the state compensatory education funds are not included in the state Chapter 1 funding amount. The next lowest figure is $390 in Puerto Rico, followed by $393 in Indiana and $471 in Maine. Table 12 provides the distribution of per-capita Chapter 1 funding across states.

### Table 12

### Dollars Per Child Served in Chapter 1 in 1983-84

| Dollars per Child | Number of States | (Percent of States) |
|---|---|---|
| Under $400 | 2 | ( 4) |
| $400 - $499 | 3 | ( 6) |
| $500 - $599 | 13 | (25) |
| $600 - $699 | 14 | (27) |
| $700 - $799 | 10 | (20) |
| $800 - $899 | 6 | (12) |
| $900 and over | 3 | ( 6) |
| **Total** | **51** | |

## What Types of Services are Provided?

Chapter 1 continues to focus on providing services in the basic skills. Each year, about three-quarters of all Chapter 1 students receive reading services and nearly half receive math. Table 13 provides the five-year trends of participation, by service area.

After a three-year decline, the numbers of children participating in reading or mathematics program began to increase in 1983, at least partly in response to increasing funding levels beginning that year. The number of participants receiving English instruction for limited-English-proficient students rose across all five years for which we have data, from a low of almost 375,000 in 1980 to almost 600,000 in 1984.

In contrast, while unreliable, the reported numbers of recipients of supporting services has declined in all categories.

## Who Provides Services?

The majority of Chapter 1 staff are teachers (44 percent) or teacher aides (42 percent). There appears to be a decreasing reliance on teacher aides, who constituted 45 percent of all staff in 1979-80 but only 42 percent in 1983-84, while the percent of teachers over this same period has risen from 39 percent to 44 percent (see Table 14). The program supports relatively few administrators: only 3 percent of the staff each year fall into this category.

### Table 13
### Number of Children Receiving Services by Service Area
### School Years 1979-80 Through 1983-84

| | 1979-80 | | 1980-81 | | 1981-82 | | 1982-83 | | 1983-84 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Service Area** | **Number** | **%** | **Number** | **%** | **Number** | **%** | **Number** | **%** | **Number** | **%** |
| **Instructional** | | | | | | | | | | |
| Reading | 4,197,335 | (78) | 3,846,228 | (73) | 3,485.024 | (72) | 3,508,280 | (74) | 3,613.823 | (75) |
| Mathematics | 2.483.044 | (46) | 2,225,264 | (42) | 2.056.220 | (42) | 2.145.306 | (43) | 2,203.489 | (46) |
| Language Arts | 1.053.144 | (19) | 832,130 | (16) | 945.804 | (19) | 899.294 | (19) | 1.040.065 | (22) |
| Limited English | 374.590 | ( 7) | 447,547 | ( 8) | 481,224 | (10) | 521.873 | (11) | 592,062 | (12) |
| Handicapped | 9.084 | ( 0) | 15,704 | ( 0) | 12.587 | ( 0) | 9.499 | ( 0) | 11,772 | ( 0) |
| Vocational | 5,571 | ( 0) | 6,565 | ( 0) | 11.094 | ( 0) | **45,799 | ( 1) | 54,774 | ( 1) |
| Other | 1.039.651 | (19) | *273.831 | ( 5) | 1,078,113 | (22) | 469.101 | (10) | 436,942 | ( 9) |
| **Supporting** | | | | | | | | | | |
| Guidance | 792.615 | (15) | 1,184,701 | (21) | 1.014,881 | (21) | 808,714 | (17) | 817.239 | (17) |
| Health/Nutrition | 1.518.798 | (28) | 1,112.883 | (22) | 851.479 | (17) | 702.899 | (15) | 714.249 | (15) |
| Transportation | 138.148 | ( 3) | 302.579 | ( 6) | 343.941 | ( 7) | 274.768 | ( 6) | 229.558 | ( 5) |
| Other | 421.070 | ( 8) | 555.549 | (10) | 714.409 | (15) | 243.522 | ( 5) | 321.160 | ( 7) |
| **Total Served** | **5,402,311** | | **5,301.448** | | **4,866,108** | | **4,731,351** | | **4,846,050** | |

* The decrease is due largely to California which did not report the number of students served in other instructional areas in 1980-81.

** The increase is due largely to California which did not report the number served in the vocational area prior to 1982-83.

## Table 14
## Number of Staff Providing Chapter 1 Services
## 1979-80 Through 1983-84

| | 1979-80 | | 1980-81 | | 1981-82 | | 1982-83** | | 1983-84 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Category** | **Number** | **%** | **Number** | **%** | **Number** | **%** | **Number** | **%** | **Number** | **%** |
| Teacher Aides | 91,457 | (46) | 83,921 | (44) | 71,698 | (41) | 60,897 | (40) | 65,626 | (42) |
| Teachers | 78,495 | (39) | *81,022 | (42) | 75,552 | (44) | 69,638 | (45) | 68,363 | (44) |
| Others | 6,608 | ( 3) | 6,406 | ( 3) | 8,237 | ( 5) | 7,976 | ( 5) | 4,025 | ( 3) |
| Admin. Staff | 6,312 | ( 3) | 4,367 | ( 2) | 4,824 | ( 3) | 3,975 | ( 3) | 4,071 | ( 3) |
| Support Staff | 6,304 | ( 3) | 6,567 | ( 3) | 5,741 | ( 3) | 5,335 | ( 3) | 5,846 | ( 4) |
| Curriculum Specs. | 6,242 | ( 3) | *2,074 | ( 1) | 2,626 | ( 1) | 1,804 | ( 1) | 2,036 | ( 1) |
| Clerical Staff | 5,076 | ( 3) | 6,682 | ( 3) | 4,766 | ( 3) | 4,273 | ( 3) | 5,246 | ( 3) |
| **Total** | **200,494** | | **191,038** | | **173,444** | | **153,897** | | **155,212** | |

* The increase in number of teachers and decrease in number of curriculum specialists from 1979-80 to 1980-81 was due to changes in reporting procedures in two States. Staff who had been reported as curriculum specialists in 1979-80 were reported as teachers in 1980-81.

** New Jersey did not report staff information for 1982-83. New Jersey's staff information has been substituted to provide a more realistic national estimate.

As Table 14 shows, the number of staff positions supported under Chapter 1 has declined almost 25 percent. Over that same period of time, the number of students served has declined only 10 percent. As a result, the nationwide ratio of students to full-time-equivalent staff member has been increasing (see Table 15). While this is not a dramatic rise (from a low of 27-to-1 to a high of 31-to-1), it may signify a move away from traditional pull-out programs to more in-class instruction, to more children in a given program, or to shorter periods of instruction. Note, however, that the ratios below do not imply class sizes of 30 children. For instance, since Chapter 1 instruction may be an hour a day, a Chapter 1 teacher may serve 30 children in five groups of six children each.

## Table 15
## Staff to Student Ratios
## 1979-80 through 1983-84

| Year | Number of Students | Number of Staff | Student/Staff Ratio |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1979-80 | 5,402,311 | 200,494 | 27-to-1 |
| 1980-81 | 5,301,468 | 191,038 | 28-to-1 |
| 1981-82 | 4,866,108 | 173,444 | 28-to-1 |
| 1982-83 | 4,731,351 | 153,897 | 31-to-1 |
| 1983-84 | 4,846,050 | 155,212 | 31-to-1 |

The cost per staff member was approximately $17,500 in 1983-84 (see Table 16). Given that this figure includes costs for direct salary, indirect costs, and materials and equipment, it is likely that state and local funds provide at least part ofd the support for Chapter 1 staff.

## Table 16
## Cost per Staff Member
## 1979-80 through 1983-84

| Year | Chapter 1 Funding | Chapter 1 Staff | Cost per Staff Member |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1979-80 | 2,776,577,501 | 200,494 | $13,849 |
| 1980-81 | 2,731,651,464 | 191,038 | $14,299 |
| 1981-82 | 2,611,386,972 | 173,444 | $15,056 |
| 1982-83 | 2,562,753,163 | 153,897 | $16,652 |
| 1983-84 | 2,727,587,368 | 155,212 | $17,573 |

### Does the Program Improve Achievement?

Data addressing the issue of the effectiveness of Chapter 1 comes from two types of sources: locally-conducted evaluations and national studies. Since 1980, states have aggregated the results of local evaluations and provided that information to ED annually. Information from the 1983-84 state performance reports has already been presented in Tables 6 and 7. Table 17 presents, for five years, the national annual achievement gains. The data show modest, but positive, program effects, and, at least at the elementary school level, the picture is very consistent with that offered by Carter (1984).

Questions about the effectiveness of the program have been asked since its inception. Despite the discouraging findings of initial reports, and later national evaluations, the general opinion among practitioners had been that the program was effective in improving achievement for the children served. However, debate over the magnitude of program effectiveness, and cost-effectiveness, has resurfaced in recent years.

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### Table 17
### Title I/Chapter 1 Annual Achievement Gains as Reported by States, 1979-80 to 1983-84

| | Reading<br>Weighted NCE Gain Scores | | | | | Mathematics<br>Weighted NCE Gain Scores | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Grade** | 79-80 | 80-81 | 81-82 | 82-83 | 83-84 | 79-80 | 80-81 | 81-82 | 82-83 | 83-84 |
| 2 | 0.6 | 1.6 | 1.0 | 0.9 | 1.0 | 1.4 | 2.3 | 3.5 | 1.7 | 3.2 |
| 3 | 2.2 | 3.4 | 2.4 | 2.8 | 3.0 | 0.8 | 2.4 | 2.7 | 2.4 | 3.2 |
| 4 | 2.1 | 3.0 | 2.7 | 2.6 | 2.9 | 1.8 | 3.3 | 2.6 | 2.7 | 3.1 |
| 5 | 2.6 | 3.4 | 3.3 | 3.2 | 3.1 | 2.5 | 2.9 | 3.6 | 4.5 | 4.4 |
| 6 | 3.5 | 4.1 | 3.4 | 3.4 | 3.2 | 4.1 | 5.1 | 4.6 | 4.9 | 4.0 |
| 7 | 1.8 | 2.0 | 2.3 | 2.2 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 2.0 | 3.1 | 4.4 | 3.5 |
| 8 | 1.8 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 3.1 | 2.4 | 2.8 | 2.8 | 3.0 | 3.6 | 3.1 |
| 9 | 2.0 | 2.1 | 2.0 | 2.7 | 1.6 | 1.1 | 0.7 | 1.0 | 2.2 | 0.7 |
| 10 | -0.5 | 1.7 | 0.7 | 1.5 | 1.1 | -0.9 | 0.4 | 0.1 | 1.4 | 0.7 |
| 11 | -1.5 | 2.2 | 0.5 | -0.6 | 0.3 | 0.8 | 0.9 | 0.5 | 0.8 | 1.1 |
| 12 | 1.8 | 0.2 | 1.7 | -0.3 | 0.3 | 1.1 | -0.2 | 0.6 | 0.3 | 1.9 |

We present below a brief summary of the most recent articles and studies about the effectiveness of Chapter 1. Most of the debaters have not collected new data; the majority cite the findings of the Sustaining Effects Study (SES), a $20 million dollar study of the effectiveness of Title I begun in 1976. The SES collected longitudinal data on grades 1 through 6 students receiving Title I and other compensatory services. Despite the fact that the SES data are now nearly a decade old, they remain the most comprehensive and compelling of the national evaluation data bases. The cost of duplicating the study today would be prohibitive.

Carter (1984), in summarizing the results from the SES, said that "Title I was effective for students who were only moderately disadvantaged, but it did not improve the relative achievement of the most disadvantaged part of the population." Compensatory education was found to be more effective in the lower grades than in the higher grades, and by the time that students were in junior high school, there was no evidence of sustained or delayed effects of Title I.

Virtually all of the subsequent writing about the impact of Chapter I builds on the SES' findings. Mullin and Summers (1983) examined 47 studies of the overall effectiveness of compensatory education, in addition to the SES. The article is not without its inaccuracies: the authors note that "...the federal government is estimated to have spent about $1.5 billion on more than 1.5 million children [on early intervention or compensatory education] year 1979..." when in fact the Title I basic grant program alone was funded at $2.8 billion in 1979, and over 5 million students were served. However, the article does provide a brief overview of a range of studies, and provides a set of conclusions that, for the most part, ring true.

The general conclusions are that:

- The programs have a positive, though small, effect on the achievement of disadvantaged students.
- The results of most studies are overstated because of the upward biases inherent in several standard statistical procedures.
- The gains appear to be greater in earlier years, and the evidence is fairly strong that early gains are not sustained.
- No significant association exists between dollars spent and achievement gains.
- No instructional approach or program characteristics was consistently found to be effective.

Stickney and Plunkett (1983) suggest that Title I was more effective than Mullin and Summers indicate. They indicate that "Federal compensatory programs, such as Title I and Head Start, may have fallen short of their lofty goals of equalizing I.Q. and achievement, but they are making a difference."

Walberg (1984), after review of studies of the program that in particular draws upon Mullin and Summers, concluded that "On balance Chapter 1, appears to have done little good for students: it has neither raised the achievement of the educationally-deprived and poorest students, nor reduced the gap between them and other students. Indeed, more Chapter 1 funds have often been spent on non-poor than poor students, and the program has put many of the poorest and most educationally-deprived students at a relative disadvantage...its net effect may have been to contribute to inequality and to the declining productivity of America's schools."

Allington (1985) believes that Chapter 1 has outlived its usefulness. He states that "At the national level, the picture is quite dismal, with little evidence that ... [the] program is effective. However, the large-scale evaluations have tended to lump the good, the bad, and the mediocre programs together and so the effects of the best efforts are often obscured."

## Discussion and Conclusions

Many of the early supporters of the original Title I legislation believed, as was common during the "Great Society" period of the mid-1960s, that quick infusions of money could provide a "boost" that would rapidly solve massive social problems and eliminate differences between poor and middle-class children. They believed that brief periods of compensatory education would allow children to permanently overcome educational deficits--despite the fact that many of the children would continue to be in educationally-deprived situations.

These early, and possibly unrealistic, expectations became the standard against which program success was measured, and led critics to dismiss the program as ineffective. The primary complaints about the program have been that (a) many students who are served by the program are not poor and (b) many students continue to need assistance year after year.

First, we would like to note that the Title I (and Chapter 1) legislation never has contained a requirement that only poor children be served by the program. As a matter of fact, the requirements for student selection--that is, that students are to be selected according to educational deficits--virtually ensure that nonpoor children will be served. And the requirement that Chapter 1 serve only eligible attendance areas ensures that some poor, educationally disadvantaged children will not qualify for services.

That being said, we can address a question often asked about Chapter 1 but rarely understood -- how many "eligible" children are actually served by the program? But eligible can have many meanings, depending on who is asking the question, and the question can thus have many answers. Eligible sometimes is used to refer to "formula-eligible" children (poor children counted in the allocation formula), it sometimes refers to poor children in Chapter 1 districts, or in Chapter 1 schools, and it sometimes refers to poor, low-achieving children.

But the law specifies who is eligible for Chapter 1 services--low-achieving children living in eligible attendance areas. About 42 million children attended school (kindergarten through high school) in the United States in 1982; of these, approximately 28 million were below the high school level.

Given that about 90 percent of the nation's school districts participate in the program, and about two-thirds of the schools in participating districts are considered eligible, we can further estimate that between 25 and 30 million children live in eligible attendance areas. Of that number, perhaps 10 million are educationally disadvantaged (i.e., they score below the 40th percentile on standardized tests), and hence eligible to participate in the program. (Actually, the eligible pool may be significantly less than this, since this estimate also includes the special education population.)

The 5 million children served by the program will not entirely overlap this group of 10 million (they are not a perfect subset, for instance, since some of the children in Chapter 1 may be over the 40th percentile), but this does lead us to conclude that about 40 to 50 percent of children eligible by law to participate in the program do so.

Second, we need to acknowledge that many students will need supplemental assistance throughout their school careers. The Sustained Achievement Study (Gabriel et al, 1985), an assessment of achievement patterns over two years on 65,000 students in 17 school districts, hypothesized that there may be three distinct subpopulations in relation to compensatory education assistance: the general subpopulation, the remedial subpopulation, and the compensatory subpopulation.

The general subpopulation consists of average or above average students who will never need remedial help. The remedial subpopulation, which is slightly below average, may need short-term help to catch up to grade level, and the compensatory subpopulation, which achieves at a significantly lower level, may need fairly continuous help. And in fact, data from all sources strongly suggest that the less disadvantaged participants in compensatory education seem to benefit significantly from the additional instruction. It is the lowest-achieving student that benefits the least.

ED will be sponsoring an initiative in 1986 to identify Chapter 1 programs that are particularly effective at serving very low-achieving children. We will assess the factors that contribute to the success of these programs, in particular the strategies they employ to enhance parental involvement and to expand the learning environment and experiences of the children.

Many Chapter 1 children may come from homes that do not provide educational stimulation–thus the children have an "educational deficit." For the period of time that the children receive supplemental services, they may be closer to being on an equal footing with the children from a more stimulating home. However, once the supplemental services are eliminated, the child is once more at a disadvantage compared with the non-Chapter 1 child, who is receiving "supplemental" services at home. It is unclear why anyone would expect the children to keep up with the more advantaged children unless services are continued.

An analogy here might be child nutrition programs. If a child is being poorly fed at home, we recognize the need to feed him for as long as that condition holds true–we do not expect that we can provide him with a nourishing lunch for two years, eliminate the lunch, and see him continue to be healthy two or four years down the road.

Other Chapter 1 children, whether or not they come from "educationally-deprived" homes, may need supplemental and special help during their entire school careers in order to obtain competency in critical basic skill areas. The standard of success for these children should be that they obtain these skills, and become productive adult citizens, not that they "catch up" with an average group of students.

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1. Low-achieving is defined as achieving one or more years below grade level.

2. NCEs are a form of standardized test scores based on percentiles and used by school districts, States, and ED since 1980 for purposes of aggregation and reporting. The NCE (or Normal Curve Equivalent) has a mean of 50, and a standard deviation of approximately 21. There would be no change in NCEs when a group has stayed at exactly the same percentile from pre-test to post-test; thus, an NCE gain indicates an increase in the percentile standing of a group, and an NCE loss indicates a decrease in a group's relative standing.

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# EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS AND THE PROBLEMS OF THE POOR

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Children who are raised in poverty currently run grave risks of educational failure–of falling far short of even moderate levels of cognitive development, of leaving high school without a diploma and ultimately of ending up in poverty for life (most recently see Kennedy, Jung, and Orland, 1986). It is not exactly clear why. It may be the hopelessness of their environments, the disinterest of their parents, or the inferiority of their schools. It may be all of these, and it is probably more. It is clear that the risk of educational failure is tragically large, and that fact has motivated government to try to reduce, if not minimize, that risk.

Not knowing precisely how to break the bond between economic and educational struggle, policymakers have tried many things. They have offered preparatory experiences for pre-schoolers, intensive instruction in the basics for slow learners, and occupational opportunities to potential dropouts. They have spent billions of dollars on educating the economically disadvantaged that would not otherwise have been spent on them. And, to some degree they have succeeded. Modest but favorable claims can now be made, for example, about Head Start, and about the single largest program for the educationally at-risk, namely, Chapter 1 of the 1981 Education Consolidation and Improvement Act (originally, Title I of the 1965 Elementary and Secondary Education Act; for an overview of Title I's improving performance see Kirst and Jung, 1980). Two decades of experimentation with a severe but perplexing problem have resulted in at least some programs that make an identifiable difference.

But this is not to say that the difference is large or even satisfactory. It is probably not as large as the decline in educational achievement that was registered by all students—but especially secondary students–over the first fifteen years of this period (trends in test scores are examined most thoroughly in Congressional Budget Office, 1986). It is not a difference that even half of the at-risk children have experienced[1] It has not been enough to reduce appreciably the dropout rate among the poor (Hanushek, 1986). And, it has not changed the sad fact that children raised in poverty run a serious risk of educational failure, perhaps every bit as serious as that which confronted them before efforts to help them began in earnest. Notwithstanding the real progress that has been made, there is ample room for improvement.

There is also room for new ideas about how that improvement can be made. Partly, this is because the educational problems of the poor are not well understood. Like the problems of educational achievement generally, they are highly complex involving not only the school (which policymakers can affect) but the family, the economy, and the whole of society (which policymakers cannot affect vary skillfully). Educational research, really still in its infancy as a branch of social science, has foreclosed on some ideas for educational improvement–for example, the simple infusion of additional funds–but not on many. And, it is fair to say that for all of the experimentation that has occurred in the field of helping the disadvantaged to learn, there is much that has never been tried. In Chapter 1, for example, more effort has probably been devoted to ensuring that children at risk of educational failure actually receive "something extra" than to designing something that significantly reduces that risk. But the room for experimentation lies not only within the Chapter 1 program itself; it lies beyond that realm in alternative approaches altogether, in approaches that might not see the provision of specialized and/or supplementary instruction as the key to aiding the disadvantaged.

This paper will ultimately consider one such alternative, but first it is necessary to lay some groundwork. Most basically, a perspective on education failure must be developed so that alternative approaches to reform can be evaluated. Somewhat unconventionally, the perspective that will be offered here is not derived from a focus on the problems of the educationally disadvantaged or on the special programs that have been created to solve those problems. Rather, it derives from a concentration on the educational problems of young people generally and on the roles that schools, not programs, play in alleviating or worsening them. This may turn out to be inappropriate given the potentially special nature of the poor's educational difficulties. However, research that treats student achievement, broadly conceived, as a product of school organization and operation has recently proven very promising, and its potential implications for the achievement problems of the poor certainly bear consideration.

After briefly reviewing the research, this paper will offer a perspective on school performance–and hence on educational failure–that builds not only on the promising results of others, but on the results of a new national survey of public and private high schools. That perspective will then be used to examine the issue of how best to help the disadvantaged, and to suggest that Chapter 1 may not be the most effective way. That line of argument will make clear why a distinctly different approach to the educational problems of the poor should at least be entertained, and will, finally, indicate what such a reform would look like.

## The Promise and Problems of Research on School Performance

Two very different bodies of recent research on school performance offer perhaps the most promising insights now available into the problem of student achievement. One is concerned with school effectiveness: what are the characteristics of schools that succeed in promoting academic achievement and other educational goals, and how can we institute reforms that encourage existing schools to develop these characteristics? The other is interested in school sector: are private schools more effective than public schools at educating students?

Research on school effectiveness has contributed to our understanding of schools in two important respects. First, a large and growing literature is building a consensus on some of the basic characteristics that seem to promote school effectiveness (e.g., Edmonds, 1979; Brookover, Beady, Flood, Schweitzer, and Wisenbaker, 1979; Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore, Ouston, and Smith, 1979; Gersten, Carnine, and Green, 1982; Farrar, Neufeld, and Miles, 1983; Neufeld, Farrar, and Miles, 1983). Generally speaking, these include strong instructional leadership by the principal, clear school goals, rigorous academic requirements, an orderly environment, an integral role for teachers in school decision making, cooperative principal-teacher relations, high parental involvement and support, and high teacher and principal expectations about student performance. Perhaps more importantly, this literature is establishing the central significance of one major aspect of the educational enterprise, namely school organization. What goes on inside a school, something that school research traditionally ignored, appears to have an important role in explaining school outcomes (classic "input-output" studies, weak on organizations, include Coleman et al., 1966 and Jencks et al., 1972).

Unfortunately, "appear" is the watchword of effective schools research. Its conclusions, however reasonable and widely shared, can only be regarded as tentative. Partly, this is a problem of method. Most of the work is based on case studies or qualitative analyses of small numbers of schools that gauge school performance impressionistically, i.e., without measures of student achievement (Sizer, 1984; Powell, Farrar, and Cohen, 1985). Not only does this provide a weak foundation for generalization, it also leaves major doubts about the effects of schools per se.[2]

The largest problem with this research, however, is not one of method. It is a problem of conceptualization. In seeking to identify the causes of school success, this research has accumulated a lengthy list of things closely associated with good performance, but not a single cogent explanation of where, why, and when those things are found. School performance is often conceived very narrowly, for example, as a product of how teachers teach or principals lead. Yet, these things and other proximate sources of student achievement, such as homework and discipline, are bound up with each other, and with qualities of the student body and political, administrative, and economic aspects of the school environment. It is possible, consequently, that many of the familiar "causes" of school effectiveness may be of only secondary importance, not to mention of limited value as levers of school reform. Unfortunately, there are practical obstacles to broadening the perspective: comprehensive and representative data on school organization and environment are rare, and data that combine these qualities with information on student achievement are virtually nonexistent.[3]

Comparative research on public and private school performance has made equally valuable–but problematic–contributions. The central conclusion of this work, especially the research of James Coleman and his associates, is that school effectiveness depends to some degree on sector; private schools are evidently more effective than public schools at producing academic achievement gains among comparable students (Coleman, Hoffer, and Kilgore, 1982; Hoffer, Greeley, and Coleman, 1985). Notwithstanding criticism of this conclusion from various methodological, theoretical (and ideological) angles, it has essentially survived (for critiques see Bryk, 1981; Guthrie and Zusman, 1981; Murnane, 1981; Goldberger and Cain, 1982; Heyns and Hilton, 1982). This is important. First, it provides, the most reliable evidence yet that schools affect student achievement, that schools really matter. The research by the Coleman team is based on the largest, most extensive, and most appropriate survey ever conducted for analyzing school performance: High School and Beyond (HSB). Second, it suggests that the school environment, in this case public or private, may be closely linked to school organization and, in turn, performance.

The suggestion has not, however, been well investigated. The Coleman group chooses to explain differences in public and private school performance in terms of variables that are logically close to student achievement, namely homework and discipline. But given all that is known about school performance, it is likely that homework and discipline are merely pieces in a large puzzle that only when properly assembled produces an effective school. If reform is to improve school performance, this point must be appreciated. Public schools cannot be made to perform like private schools by mandating that they increase homework and stiffen discipline.

Progress in school improvement demands progress in school theory, and that requires the explanation of private school superiority to be rounded out. The many and related organizational factors that affect student achievement need to be investigated simultaneously. Their arrangement into more and less effective forms of organization, both between and among public and private schools, needs to be assessed in a manner that recognizes their interdependence with each other and with the students and environments they serve. As things now stand we do not know what exactly constitutes an effective organization, or when such an organization is likely to be found. As a result, we do not adequately understand why one school, private or public, out-performs another--and we are ill equipped to do anything about it.

## A New Approach to School Performance

In the research I am conducting with Terry M. Moe of Stanford University, we are trying to develop a more comprehensive view of school organization and performance (Chubb and Moe, 1986a). We begin that effort by recognizing that a school, like any organization, survives, grows, and adapts through constant exchange with an environment--comprised, in this case, of parents, administrators, politicians, demographic changes, socioeconomic conditions, and a range of other forces that variously generate support, opposition, stress, opportunities for choice, and demands for change. Internally, it has its own distinctive structures and processes, its own culture of norms, beliefs and values, and its own technology for transforming inputs into outputs. The organization and its environment together constitute an overarching system of behavior in which, as the saying goes, everything is related to everything else: the environment shapes the internal organization, the organization generates outputs and they in turn have a variety of reciprocal effects on both the organization and its environment. The result over time is an iterative process of impact and adaptation.

It is impossible to capture all this richness in theory and research. It is undesirable as well. The key is to put this sort of organizational framework to use in simplified form, retaining only those elements most salient to the explanation. Our focus is on the construction of two interrelated models. The first attempts to explain organizational characteristics, the second attempts to explain outputs. The organizational model allows for the impacts of environment and outputs on school organization, as well as for reciprocal relationships among the organizational elements themselves. The output model understands important school products in terms of environmental and organizational influences.

To estimate these models, and more generally to put our organizational approach to an empirical test, it was necessary to have an unusually comprehensive data set. It had to include reliable quantitative indicators of student achievement and background, school structure, organization, and operation, and school environment, including the influences of parents, administrators, and politicians. No such data set existed when this project was conceived in 1982, but one came close. The High School and Beyond survey, first administered in 1980 and later supplemented by biennial follow-up surveys, provided an excellent data base for analyzing student achievement and measuring school performance in the public and private sectors alike. A data set comprised of the 1980 and 1982 waves could provide measures of actual student achievement for more than 25,000 students in roughly 1,000 schools nationwide, and enough information about the "causes" of that achievement outside of school--e.g., parental and peer influence--to gauge reliably the effectiveness of schools. The main problem with any data set derived from the HSB surveys is that it cannot provide adequate information about school organization and environment. Principals in the HSB study were surveyed for data available for the most part in school records--e.g., class sizes, course offerings--and teachers were queried only superficially.

The student data in the HSB survey are nonetheless among the best ever collected, so we decided to pursue our organizational approach by supplementing the HSB surveys with a new one aimed at organizational and environmental factors. The result is the "Administrator and Teacher Survey" (ATS), designed and directed by us and several colleagues. In 1984 it was used to obtain information from nearly 500 of the HSE schools, including most of the more than 100 private schools. Questionnaires were administered in each school to the principal and thirty teachers, among others. The survey permits detailed descriptions of schools--their relationships with parents and outside authorities, their interpersonal relationships, and their educational atmospheres and practices. In other words, the survey provides reliable measures of the gamut of factors identified in qualitative research on school effectiveness, as well as measures of factors that might explain why the qualities of effectiveness arise. When merged, the HSB and ATS surveys provide a promising data base for explaining not only differences in school performance between the public and private sectors, but school performance generally.

## Some Suggestive Findings

Evaluating this perspective on school performance is a complicated process, and the work, while well along, is not yet complete. The results we have obtained so far are very encouraging for they suggest that school organization, environment, and performance are bound together in predictable ways. This is well illustrated by a portion of the research that is complete: a comparison of public and private schools (Chubb and Moe, 1986b). The comparison is instructive because public and private schools obviously have very different environments, the former being characterized by political and authoritative control and the latter by market and competitive control. In addition, they seem to have different levels of effectiveness: current evidence suggests that private schools are in fact more effective than public schools at educating comparable students. It is reasonable to expect that private schools already tend to the characterized by precisely those organizational features that reformers have been urging on the public schools–and that it is the environmental differences between the two sectors that largely account for the organizational and performance differences.

For purposes of comparison, we broke down the private sector schools into three types: Catholic, Elite (high performance, college prep), and Other Private (a catch-all category). The results indicate that key aspects of the organizations and environments of public and private schools indeed differ systematically.

### External Authorities

If the operation of politics and markets suggests anything, it is that public schools should find themselves operating in larger, more complex governing systems and that these governing systems should tend to leave them with less autonomy and control over their own policies, structure, goals, and operation. Public schools simply do not have available to them the same tools as private schools, namely the forces of the marketplace and the threat of going out of business, to ensure that schools do what clients (and especially voters) want them to do. They must rely on some hierarchical authority structure to set goals and ensure compliance. Of course, it is a foregone conclusion that the public governing system will be more complex when it comes to higher levels of political and administrative authority: public schools are part of state and Federal governmental systems, and private schools generally are not. But what about immediate outside authorities, those best situated to oversee and constrain the school at the local level?

Not surprisingly, virtually all public schools are subordinate to school boards and to outside administrative superiors. Private schools are far more diverse, regardless of type.

Most private schools have a school board of some sort, but many have no accompanying administrative apparatus. Such an apparatus is quite rare among the Elite schools and nearly half of the Other Private schools are similarly unencumbered. It is the Catholic schools that most resemble the public schools in this regard; some two-thirds of them have both school boards and administrative superiors.

Still, these patterns tell us only that private schools are subject to fewer outside authorities; they do not tell us whether the authorities that private schools actually do face are any less demanding than those that public schools face. It turns out, however, that they are. On five basic policy dimensions–curriculum, instructional methods, discipline, hiring, and firing–school boards in the public sector appear to have more influence over school policy than they do in the private sector, regardless of the type of private school, and principals, relative to their school boards, have less. When it comes to the influence of administrative superiors, the famed Catholic hierarchy (the only private sector hierarchy worth talking about) plays, by public sector standards, very little role in setting school policy. On all five dimensions, the influence of administrative superiors is far less in Catholic than in public schools, and Catholic principals have more autonomy in setting school policy than public principals do.

These are, of course, only simple measures of influence. But the patterns they yield are quite uniform and entirely consistent with the expectation that public schools, by virtue of their reliance on political control, will be subject to greater control by external authorities. The authorities that are so ubiquitous in the democratic context of the pubic school are often simply absent from private school settings. Even when they are an acknowledged part of the governing apparatus, they are less influential in the actual determination of school policy. Private schools, it would appear, have more control over their own destinies.

### Staffing the Organization

External authorities are by no means the only constraints that limit the ability of a school to structure and operate its organization as it sees fit. Two in particular–tenure and unions–restrict a school's freedom to exercise perhaps its most significant form of control: its ability to recruit the kinds of teachers it wants and to get rid of those who do not live up to its standards. Public schools are much more constrained in these regards.

The ATS survey shows that 88 percent of public schools offer tenure while only a minority of the private schools do. Among the schools that do offer tenure, moreover, the proportion of teachers who have actually been awarded it reflects the same asymmetry: 80 percent of the eligible teachers in public schools have tenure, while the figure is some 10 to 16 percent lower in the private sector. The differences in unionization are even more substantial. The vast majority of public schools are unionized–some 80 percent–while in the private sector, teachers are rarely so organized. Only about 10 percent of the Catholic schools are unionized; virtually none of the Elites and Other Privates are.

Inherent differences between politics and markets help account for these disparate levels of constraint. Tenure systems in public schools are simply special cases of the civil service systems that exist at all levels of government. Unions are a product, at least in part, of the need among politicians for organization, money, and manpower-real assets in state and local elections where voter turnout is typically low. There is nothing to prevent unions from gaining a foothold in private schools nor to keep private schools from adopting tenure and other civil service-like protection; however, there is nothing comparable to government that drives them in that direction. Whether unions and tenure systems take hold in the private sector is determined to a far greater extent by the market.

But do these constraints perceptibly influence school control over important personnel issues? According to the principals in the ATS survey, they certainty do. Public principals claim to face substantially greater obstacles in dismissing a teach for poor performance than private school principals indicate. The procedures are far more complex, the tenure rules more restrictive, and the preparation and documentation process roughly three times as long. Their complexity and formality make dismissal procedures the highest barrier to firing cited by public school principals. For private school principals the highest barrier is a personal reluctance to fire.

Even if superintendents and central offices wanted to reduce these obstacles–to delegate greater control over teachers to public school principals–many of these personnel decisions cannot in practice be delegated. In the public sector, tenure protections are usually guaranteed through laws that are written by school boards or state legislatures, and union contracts are typically bargained at the district level. Tenure and unionization tend to settle the question of when and how the basic personnel decisions will be made in the public sector.

### Principals

According to much of the new literature on school effectiveness, the principal holds a key to school success. Excellence in education appears to be promoted by a principal who articulates clear goals, holds high expectations of students and teachers, exercises strong instructional leadership, steers clear of administrative burdens, and effectively extracts resources from the environment. According to our perspective, the principal is also critical: he is responsible for negotiating successfully with the environment–for dealing somehow with demands and pressures from parents, unions, administrators, and school boards.

But this does not mean that schools necessarily will benefit from being headed by an adroit principal. The school environment can have a lot to say about whether the principal is able to practice the precepts of effective leadership. Effective leadership does not simply inhere in the individual filling the role; it is unavoidably contingent upon the demands, constraints, and resources that the principal must deal with. Depending on the nature and strength of these forces, even the "best" principal may have only a marginal effect on school performance.

The ATS survey disclosed substantial differences between public and private school principals. To begin with, private school principals have considerably more teaching experience–almost four years more for principals in Catholic schools, and over five years more for those in the Elites and Other Privates. Private school principals also come to their jobs with different motivations than their public counterparts. They are more likely to stress control over school policies, while public school principals place greater emphasis on a preference for administrative responsibilities, a desire to further their careers, and an interest in advancing to higher administrative posts.

These differences in experience and motivation appear to shape the principal's performance as a leader. As judged by their own teachers, private school principals are more effective instructional leaders and are more likely to exhibit other basic qualities of leadership–knowledge of school problems, openness with the staff, clarity and strength of purpose, and a willingness to innovate.

From the standpoint of politics and markets, these findings make sense. In the public sector, the administrative hierarchy offers an attractive avenue for career advancement. In the private sector, the governing structure offers fewer opportunities. Private school principals consequently stay in teaching longer, and their view of the principalship focuses more on its relation to the school than on its relation to their movement up an educational hierarchy. Of course, these are not the only determinants of leadership. Public school principals are forced to operate in much more complex, discordant circumstances in which educational success is more difficult to achieve regardless of the principal's (perhaps considerable) abilities. If anything, the public school principal's lack of teaching expertise and his hierarchic career orientation probably contribute to these leadership problems.

## Goals and Policies

Given what we know of their environments, there is every reason to expect that public and private schools should adopt very different orientations toward the education of their students. Because public schools must take whoever walks in the door, they do not have the luxury of being able to select the kind of students best suited to organizational goals and structure. In practice this means that the pursuit of educational excellence must compete with much more basic needs–for literacy, for remedial training, for more slowly paced instruction. In addition, the hierarchical structure of democratic control ensures that a range of actors with diverse, often conflicting interests will participate in deciding what the public school ought to pursue and how. Private schools, largely unconstrained by comparison, should find it easier (if they want to do so) to place a high priority on excellence and, whatever their goals, to choose a set that is clear and consistent.

The results of the ATS survey confirmed these expectations. In terms of general goals, public schools place significantly greater emphasis on basic literacy, citizenship, good work habits, and specific occupational skills, while private schools–regardless of type–are more oriented toward academic excellence, personal growth and fulfillment, and human relations skills. These goals are also upheld by specific policies and are clearly discerned by the staff. Private schools have more stringent minimum graduation requirements; their students, regardless of track, must take significantly more English, history, science, math, and foreign language than public school students in order to graduate. Private schools also have more stringent homework policies. Finally, private teachers uniformly say that school goals are clearer and more clearly communicated by the principal than public teachers report; and they are more in agreement among themselves on school priorities.

All of these characteristics that private schools possess in greater abundance are stereotypical of effective schools. They are also characteristics that, due to the differential operation of politics and markets, would seem extremely difficult for public schools to develop in the same degree.

## Teachers and Teaching

Politics and markets cannot hope to tell us everything we might want to know about organizational structure and process, but they point us in a clear direction. The critical fact about the public school environment is not just that it is complex, but that it imposes decisions about policy, structure, personnel, and procedure on the school. Nowhere is this more apparent than in the control over the most crucial agent of organizational performance: the teacher.

As we have seen, the public school principal is far less able than his private counterpart to staff his organization according to his best judgement. This, in turn, should promote differences in staff heterogeneity and conflict. Public school teachers may reject the principal's leader-ship, dissent from school goals and policies, get along poorly with their colleagues, or fail to perform acceptably in the classroom–but the principal must somehow learn to live with them. When these teachers are represented by unions, as they normally are, leadership difficulties are magnified. Professionalism takes on new meaning: as a demand that decision-making power be transferred from the principal to the teachers. Private schools are not immune from personnel problems and struggles for power. But the fact that the principal has much greater control over hiring and firing means that he can take steps to recruit the kinds of teachers he wants and weed out those he does not. It also means that teachers have a strong inducement to perform.

By comparison to his public school counterpart, the private school principal is better able to create a team of teachers whose values, skills, and willingness to work together tend to mirror those qualifications he deems conducive to the pursuit of organizational goals. At the same time, he is in a position to make teacher professionalism work for rather than against him. Without real threat to his own authority or control, he can encourage teachers to participate in decision-making, extend them substantial autonomy within their own spheres of expertise, and promote a context of interaction, exchange of ideas, and mutual respect.

The data from the ATS survey support this general line of reasoning. Private school principals consistently claim that a larger percentage of their schools' teachers are "excellent," suggesting that these principals are more confident in the abilities of their own staff members than public school principals are in theirs. Private sector teachers, in turn, have better relationships with their principals. They are consistently more likely to regard the latter as encouraging, supportive, and reinforcing. Private school teachers also feel more involved and efficacious in important areas of school decision making that bear on their teaching. They feel more influential over schoolwide policies, and in their classrooms, they believe they have more control over most matters that govern their effectiveness.

Relative harmony between private school principals and teachers is matched by relative harmony among the private teachers themselves. On a personal level, relationships are more collegial in the private sector. On a professional level, private school teachers give greater evidence of mutual involvement and support. It should come as no surprise that private school teachers are much more satisfied with their jobs, have better attendance records, and tend to work for less money. Private schools do look more like teams.

## School Control and School Organization

Why private schools tend to develop team-like organizations is a question of potentially great import for school improvement: Private schools appear to be more effective than public schools, and the team qualities that distinguish private schools--strong leadership, shared goals, cooperative decision making, collegial relationships, mutual trust, widespread efficacy--are the very qualities that research on school improvement has identified as keys to student achievement. To be sure, private schools may owe some of this organizational esprit de corps to the better students and more supportive parents that, on average, they work with. But not all of it. In analyses that we are currently completing on the merged HSB-ATS data set we have tentatively found that the school environment is at least as important as the school clientele in determining the organizational climate of the school. Significantly, this appears to be every bit as true of the shaping of school organizations within the public sector as it is between the public and the private sectors: more complex and constraining environments are associated with more troubled school organizations regardless of sector. Still, the differences between the organizations and environments of public and private schools are so striking that they must be understood--not only for what they may say about the influence of school control but, as we shall see, for what they may disclose about the prospects for school improvement both within and outside of public education systems.

It is important to recognize that public schools are captives of democratic politics. They are subordinates in a hierarchical system of control in which myriad interests and actors use the rules, structures, and processes of democracy to impose their preferences on the local school. It is no accident that public schools are lacking in autonomy, that principals have difficulty leading, and that school goals are heterogeneous, unclear, and undemanding. Nor is it an accident that weak principals and tenured, unionized teachers struggle for power and hold one another in relatively low esteem. These sorts of characteristics constitute an organizational syndrome whose roots are deeply anchored in democratic control as we have come to know it.

Private schools are controlled by society too, but there are few, if any, political or administrative mechanisms to ensure that they respond as they "should." They make their own decisions about policy, organization, and personnel subject to market forces that signal how they can best pursue their own goals and prosperity. Given their substantial autonomy, it is not surprising to find that principals are stronger leaders, that they have greater control over hiring and firing, that they and the teachers they choose have greater respect for and interaction with one another, and that teachers--without conflict or formal demands--are more integrally involved in school decision making. As in the public sector, these sorts of organizational characteristics are bound up with one another, and they jointly arise from the surrounding environment. Different environments promote different organizational syndromes.

## Policies, Bureaucracy, and Chapter 1

In thinking about how best to help disadvantaged children it may well be instructive to appreciate how much the experience of Chapter 1 (and Title I) has been shaped by the dynamic of public control--and how much that dynamic has itself been shaped by Chapter 1. When Title I was legislated in 1965, it was conceived as a way for the Federal government to provide compensatory educational services to disadvantaged children without becoming involved itself in the delivery of education. As it had in so many other categorical grants-in-aid, the government in Washington would send funds to qualifying lower governments (in this instance, ones with certain concentrations of poor people) on the condition that the funds would be spent for some federally designated purpose. This enabled the Federal government to do what it arguably could do best--raise and redistribute revenue--and left the lower governments to exploit their comparative advantage in supplying services to suit local demands. Cumbersome and costly administrative arrangements would be minimized and efficiency would be maximized.

Unfortunately, things did not quite work out that way. Federal policymakers had underestimated the the difficulty of accomplishing national goals through subnational governments and agencies. There was often a conflict of interest between the national and the lower government and a severe asymmetry of information about what interests were being satisfied. Lower governments did not always agree that Federal funds should be spent directly on serving the educationally disadvantaged; spending on teacher salaries, physical facilities, general school improvements, or even future tax savings were sometimes regarded as more desirable. In addition, since only local governments knew for sure how additional funds (in large fungible budgets) were really being spent, they enjoyed an advantage over Federal authorities who were trying to ensure that their goals were being realized. The problem that Federal authorities faced was a classic one of organizational design, a "principal-agent" problem.[4] If the "principals" in Washington did not take measures to overcome the conflicts of interest and informational asymmetries between them and their state and local "agents," they were going to find their agents "shirking" their mandated responsibilities. Because Title I initially included no such measures, shirking indeed occurred.

In theory, this is easy to overcome. "Principals" can monitor their "agents" directly to see that appropriate effort is being made to satisfy the "principals'" goals. Or they can offer their "agents" incentives for satisfying goals, without prompting a costly amount of monitoring. In the private sector combinations of monitoring and incentives are frequently used. But in the public sector, they usually are not. Incentives tend to be precluded by the difficulty of measuring productivity in the absence of markets for public goods. The public sector therefore relies mostly on monitoring--on rules, regulation, and reporting, i.e., on bureaucracy.

Federal policymakers, alerted by beneficiary groups that Title I funds were not always reaching the disadvantaged, began monitoring state and local educational agencies more carefully in the late 1960s (on the early implementation experience see Murphy, 1971 and McLaughlin, 1975). Their intention was not to tell the agencies precisely how to spend their money, but rather, in the spirit of the policy's initial conception, to ensure that the money was spent on the statute's goal, namely improving the educational experiences of the disadvantaged. In time, monitoring proved an awkward and inadequate tool for accomplishing this deceptively simple goal. The Federal government could not afford to supervise directly the behavior of all the state and local agencies participating in the program (though it did increase its auditing sharply in the early 1970s); hence, it opted for specifying in ever greater detail the standards that agencies would have to meet to pass occasional Federal inspections (See Chubb, 1985b). Even these very extensive and explicit regulations--for example, "supplement, not supplant," "excess costs," and "comparability"--did not expressly violate the Federal government's objective of staying out of local educational processes. But in effect they did.

To make these regulations work with a minimum of direct Federal supervision, the Federal government had to find some way to get "agents" at the state and local level to work with them rather than against them. State and local education authorities, not to mention general governmental authorities, resisted an alliance because their interest was fundamentally in autonomy. So, lacking any ready converts to Federal objectives, the national government began paying for the employment of state and local "agents" it could call its own. Title I allocations included funds to establish and maintain state and local offices of compensatory education or any other administrative arrangement that would ensure the financial and educational integrity of the program. Once in place, compensatory education agencies had powerful incentives to see to it that Title I funds were properly allocated and appropriately spent, and that eligible beneficiaries were actually served: their very existence depended on the maintenance of the program, which ultimately depended on its satisfactory implementation. These agencies were also in excellent positions to carry out their mission: They suffered no informational disadvantages and, in time, they developed the political influence--via beneficiary support and their own organizations--to encourage state and local officials to stay in line (See Chubb, 1985c).

The Federal government cultivated these new allies with more than financial support. They interacted with them regularly, encouraged their participation in intergovernmental associations, and ultimately engendered a sense of professional commitment that united administrators from Washington to the lowest level (See Hill, 1979). In the process, the Federal government overcame its "principal-agent" problem. By 1980 conflict and suspicion had given way to cooperation and trust--or at least healthy measures of these things--and the spiral of regulation and monitoring could be permitted to stop (Kirst and Jung, 1980; Peterson, Rabe, and Wong, in press). An intergovernmental bureaucracy, committed to Federal purposes, had been integrated into state and local educational bureaucracies and was operating relatively smoothly. Federal monies were finally supplementing in significant amounts the educations that were being received by the economically and educationally disadvantaged (on the fiscal effectiveness of Title I see Chubb, 1985c).

The process did not, however, leave subnational educational practices essentially intact nor preserve state and local autonomy. To begin with, it contributed to the centralization of school control. While local education agencies--that is, school districts--were designated as the legally responsible officials at the service delivery level, state education agencies were given responsibility for allocating Federal funds and for holding local officials accountable. One effect was to draw local districts increasingly under the influence of state authority. But a more important consequence may have been the shift of authority from the individual school to the district. School districts were given the chore of allocating funds among schools and seeing that these funds, in turn, reached eligible students. In practice this came to mean that schools were less free to choose how best to serve their disadvantaged students, and instead districts were in charge. It also meant that districts had to establish monitoring and reporting procedures and to create jobs and, in large districts, entire offices for performing these routines--not only for compensatory education, but for a host of other categorical programs with similar political and administrative problems.

How much this process of centralization contributed to the general one that was diminishing school autonomy during that time is difficult to say. It is true that Federal assistance facilitated the overall growth of state and local bureaucracy; however, the connection between Federal grants-in-aid and educational centralization has not been well investigated.[5] Still, there is no gainsaying the price in autonomy that has been paid by schools on issues and concerns touched by Federal programs. A good case in point is the uniformity of services now provided by schools to students eligible for compensatory education. From state to state, district to district, and school to school educators have converged on a relatively small number of approaches to serving the poor. Among the most common is the concentration of services on the lowest grades of school and the provision of supplementary instruction in reading to children removed from their regular classes for just that purpose (Kennedy, Jung, and Orland, 1986; Peterson, Rabe, and Wong, in press). While so-called "pullout" programs may be on the wane with increasing doubts about their effectiveness, uniformity continues to be the rule. It is important to understand why. It is not because educator after educator has concluded that one approach represents the best way to serve eligible students. It is rather because special programs such as "pullouts" provide the strongest evidence that local authorities can offer to outside authorities that appropriate students are receiving supplementary services.

Significantly, there has been little change in this system over recent years–even though Chapter 1 frees lower governments of many of the regulations established under Title I. The administrative apparatus for carrying out Federal purposes is either so well entrenched that forces for change are being successfully resisted, or the fear of re-regulation is so great that past routines are being continued out of sheer prudence. Whatever the reason, there is little evidence that increases in administrative flexibility have produced innovations in the services that the disadvantaged are receiving. The program and its central objectives are well institutionalized.

## Rethinking Reform

The implementation experience of Title I and Chapter 1 illustrates perfectly the potential consequences–often adverse–of trying to improve education through the public system as it is currently constituted. Through an escalating exchange of regulation and resistance between the top of the system and the bottom, a program intended to give resources and discretion to schools with needy children turned into a program delivering highly uniform supplementary services to some of the children in need but offering precious little to the schools themselves. This outcome, it is important to understand, was not the result of considered decisions by educational professionals about how best to educate the poor, nor was it the result of judgements by politicians about the most effective course of action to take. It was not, however, inadvertent. Federal politicians, under pressure from constituency groups to see that eligible children received compensatory education, reacted in the only way they had at their disposal: by demanding that Federal bureaucrats placate those groups. In turn, Federal bureaucrats and their subnational allies used the only tools at their disposal–regulation and auditing–to force local education agencies to help the children of the groups that were complaining. Finally, those agencies responded by providing compensatory education in ways that most readily demonstrated their compliance.

Over time these intergovernmental conflicts have given way to more cooperative implementation routines. But has this adaptive process produced a successful compensatory education policy? Obviously, that is an important question in thinking about improvement.

However, it is not the only question–nor perhaps even the most important one. We must also ask whether the process that produced the current policy can be relied upon to generate improvements.

The question of Chapter 1's success has been addressed many times, and answered in many ways. In recent years, the answers have tended to be positive. It is almost certain that Federal spending has increased the resources devoted to educating the poor. Federal aid for poor students is not only proving to be genuinely supplementary: it also seems to be stimulating state and local spending for the same purposes.[6] In addition, there are favorable signs that students receiving compensatory education are achieving more than they would without it (favorable evaluations are reviewed in Kirst and Jung, 1980 and Peterson, Rabe, and Wong, in press).

Still, there is room to question Chapter 1's success and its ultimate desirability. To begin with, many children who are economically and educationally disadvantaged–probably half of the total–do not receive Chapter 1 services, either because they attend schools that have not been designated by their districts to receive compensatory services, or if they attend designated schools, are enrolled in grades that are not receiving services. Second, the schools that Chapter 1 children attend are not demonstrably better off by virtue of offering compensatory services. The children may be, but the schools are not. This has repercussions not only for students who are not receiving compensatory services, but for ones who are. If children are benefiting from supplementary services but otherwise suffering from the poor educational environments of their schools, their educations remain problematic. To be sure, students are better off receiving services than not receiving them. But this is not to say they are being well served.

For one thing, if the centralization process to which compensatory education contributed is in some measure responsible for the deterioration that public education experienced during the time Title I was being implemented,

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the compensatory services that some disadvantaged students are receiving may simply be making up for ground that the program itself helped to lose. Be that as it may, there is also a firm basis for questioning the very approach to compensatory education that Chapter 1 has come to embody. Both the literature on effective schools and our own research on public and private schools indicate that school performance has more to do with a complex of factors that characterize schools as total organizations than with any particular programs that schools may provide. Successful schools are distinguished by interdependent qualities–strong leadership, a sense of mission, shared decision making, relative teacher autonomy–that bind schools together and foster teamwork. This appears to be as true of schools that teach the rich as it is of schools that teach the poor. Compensatory education as it is currently conceived and implemented does nothing to nurture these qualities. To the contrary, by increasing the control of the school from the outside, it may discourage their development. The implication for reform, then, is quite plain: If research on school organization and performance is on target, compensatory education might be more successful if it were aimed at improving the schools that the disadvantaged attend rather than at increasing the services that some of these students receive.

The remaining question, of course, is how this can be done. How can schools that educate the disadvantaged be encouraged to develop the organizational attributes of effectiveness? If school environments have as much to do with the development of these attributes as the comparative analysis of public and private schools indicates, and as the Title I/Chapter 1 experience suggests, vigorous school organizations may be difficult to cultivate within the current system of public education.

For example, consider the expressed desire of the current school reform movement to create such organizations. The rhetoric of reformers is replete with support for greater school autonomy, stronger leadership from principals, and more respect for the professional judgment of teachers. But what reformers fail to appreciate is that these improvements cannot simply be imposed on schools in the public sector. As the compensatory education experience so well illustrates, politicians and administrators have little incentive to support fundamental reform; their careers are tied to their own control over the schools, and they are unavoidably responsive to interest groups with stakes in the centralized arrangements of the status quo. Reforms that manage to get adopted–for example, tougher graduation requirements and student competency tests–leave the basic structure of the system intact, and, more than that, encourage the further regulation and standardization of educational practices within the school.

In time, it is also likely that whatever reforms are adopted will tend to be neutralized and assimilated. Increases in school autonomy are likely to be restricted once school principals take steps that create political difficulties for superintendents or school boards. Reductions in the number of strings attached to compensatory aid are likely to be turned around once interest groups resume complaining that they cannot identify the additional services that schools are providing. Public schools did not lose autonomy nor suffer the organizational consequences of that loss by accident or misunderstanding. And, the new-found wisdom that we may be paying a price for a superfluity of accountability is not likely to change things. The various components of the current system are so closely interconnected and so driven toward control from the top that attempts to improve part of the system in isolation from all of the rest–for example, by restructuring Chapter 1–are likely to set off a series of compensating changes that minimize the impact of the reform.

Where does this leave the prospects for improvement? In rather sad shape–if improvements must be pursued within the existing system. Real improvements may require a different system. It may be necessary to organize the provision of education in some way other than through direct democratic control, as we have come to know it, if the apparent educational problems of centralization, standardization, and routinization are to be avoided. At the very least, the possibility must be entertained.

If schools are to develop the organizational qualities that research now indicates are essential for real educational gains, it may even be necessary to emulate the system of control that governs private schools, where teaching and professional autonomy flourish. Government would still set minimum standards. It would also provide funding, probably in the form of vouchers allocated directly to parents. Students who are difficult to educate, especially the economically disadvantaged, would receive larger vouchers to induce schools to provide for them. But the government, besides providing graduated funding and setting basic standards, would do little else. Virtually all of the important decisions about policy, organization, and personnel would be taken out of the hands of politicians and administrators and given over to schools and their clients: the students and their parents.

In a system requiring competition for students and resources, schools would have incentives to move toward more efficient and effective forms of organization. Schools that clung to costly bureaucratic methods, that did not attract and utilize talented people, that failed to encourage collegial and productive relationships among their members, or that lacked strong leadership toward clearly defined educational goals would tend to go out of business. Effective schools would tend to prosper.

The added virtue of this system for the disadvantaged is that it would provide a way to overcome the considerable professional ignorance about how best to serve those struggling students. Experimentation would be encouraged. Schools and programs that failed to serve the disadvantaged effectively would be weeded out while those that succeeded would grow. The process would almost certainly move schools away from their current reliance on special classes for the disadvantaged and toward a greater variety of services. But even if it did not, there would at least be reason to believe that the programs in place were justified by their educational merits. Today's programs are justified largely by their political and administrative merits. Some will say that parents, especially of the poor, are not wise enough to make the process of natural selection work. But parental wisdom is not a prerequisite for the process to move forward. Even if many parents continued to send their children to the school closest to their home, the neighborhood school would be a better one: The school would have the novel concern that some day parents might find an alternative school more attractive and leave.

Obviously, any change as fundamental as this runs the risk of political infeasibility. Unless the quality or equity of public education declines further, it will be difficult to overcome the opposition of organized groups whose interests are threatened by fundamental reform. Still, there is increasing sympathy among establishment groups--for example, the National Governors Association--for the idea of providing schools with greater autonomy in exchange for schools taking greater responsibility for performance. And, there is even a proposal now before Congress to convert Chapter 1 funds to compensatory vouchers. These are significant developments. To be sure, they do not promise enormous improvements. Even the fairly radical idea of providing Chapter 1 vouchers does little more than increase parental choice by a modicum; it does nothing to increase school autonomy. The significance of the ideas is what they signal: serious interest in basic school reform. If schools are indeed products of their environments, and if the way they are organized really shapes their performance, fundamental reform may be the only type of reform that offers genuine hope for school improvement, and through it, greater educational gains for the poor.

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1. Estimates of the number of eligible children served by Chapter 1 vary, but as Kennedy, Jung, and Orland (1986) indicate, 50 percent is roughly at the center of this range.

2. Even those few studies that analyze actual student achievement (e.g., Rutter et al., 1979; Brookover et al., 1979) rely on limited samples of schools.

3. The best survey on school organization, despite being based on an unrepresentative sample, is probably Goodlad (1984); however, it lacks data on student achievement. The best current survey of students and their abilities is probably High School and Beyond; however, it is weak on organizational measures.

4. This framework is used more formally to evaluate the implementation of Title I in Chubb (1985c).

5. The impact of Federal aid on state and local bureaucracy is discussed and estimated in Chubb (1985a).

6. The growing fiscal effectiveness of the program can be seen by comparing the estimates of Feldstein (1977) for 1970 and of Chubb (1985c) for the period 1965-1979; the period effect is two-thirds higher.

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# THE DELIVERY AND ORGANIZATION OF COMPENSATORY EDUCATION

*(ED306338)*

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Recent evaluations of Federal compensatory education programs in the United States, both those funded by the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, Title I, and those maintained under Chapter 1 of the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act of 1981, point to the qualified effectiveness of large-scale national compensatory education efforts, particularly in the targeting of services, program structures, and classroom arrangements for increasing the academic achievement of educationally disadvantaged students.

## The Targeting of Compensatory Education

The targeting of compensatory education programs and services requires an agreement about who should receive them, particularly about whether poverty status or low achievement should be the determinant. The January 1986 National Assessment of Chapter 1 demonstrates a strong link between the poverty status of the school and the achievement of its students, and thus provides clear support for considering the poverty status of the school first and then its student achievement as criteria for providing funds. Although there is a weak relationship between family poverty and individual student achievement, students are increasingly likely to fall behind grade level as their families remain in poverty over longer periods of time; overall student achievement in a school (not just the achievement of poor students) declines as its proportion of poor students rises. Moreover, the low achievement scores attributed to minorities are correlated with their backgrounds of severe and long-term poverty. These findings answer the criticism of those who fault Chapter 1 for serving a much higher proportion of minorities than exist in the general school population. The large number of black and other minority children among those experiencing long-term poverty in the home, and concentrations of poverty in their communities, suggest that minorities may be experiencing a different kind of poverty from other children, and thus should be receiving services (Kennedy, Jung, & Orland, 1986b).

Being the child of a single mother, having many siblings, and moving often are also highly associated with poverty, and thus with achievement. Whereas half of all children living in female-headed households are poor, only about an eighth living in households with males present are poor; and the poverty rates are higher when the single mother is a minority. In addition, the larger the number of children in the family, the more likely the family is to be poor. Student mobility is also related to poverty and achievement: poor children move during the year almost twice as often as non-poor children (Kennedy, et al., 1986b).

Since the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, poor children have been better served by compensatory education than low-achievers. Relative to the overall school-age population, Title I/Chapter 1 students are more likely to be poor. Nevertheless, as many as 14 percent of elementary schools with very high poverty rates do not receive Chapter 1 services. Moreover, the 1986 National Assessment data show that of these students who are both poor and in the bottom 50 percent in reading achievement, over half are not receiving any compensatory education (Birman, Orland, Jung, Anson, & Garcia, 1987). The proportion of low-achieving students receiving compensatory education varies according to their number in the school; and to local decisions to serve many rather than a few children. Schools with fewer lower-achieving students available are more likely to provide Chapter 1 program services to higher-achieving students; similarly, schools with large Chapter 1 programs, unless they have substantial concentrations of poor students, are also more likely to serve higher-achieving students (Kennedy, et al. 1986a).

Although Chapter 1 schools generally have higher concentrations of both poor students and students with lower reading levels, not all poor schools or schools with low achieving students are well-served. There are several reasons for these inequities:

- Low-poverty Chapter 1 schools are often in low-poverty districts, but they are eligible for Chapter 1 because they are poorer than the district's low average.

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- High-poverty non-Chapter 1 schools are often in high-poverty districts which serve only their neediest schools.
- Low-achieving students may not participate in Chapter 1 because they receive other special services, such as special education, a bilingual/English-as-a-Second-Language program, a migrant program, or a state compensatory education program; or, scoring just below the district's cutoff, are judged less in need than others who participate.
- Higher-achieving students may participate because schools, determining that their achievement scores are invalid, believe these students deserve to participate; or because these districts have more openings for Chapter 1 students than they have educationally disadvantaged students in their Chapter 1 schools. (Wood, Gabriel, Marder, Gamel, & Davis, 1986).

Given limited funding, even if poverty and achievement were the sole criteria, most districts could serve only a small percentage of those students who might need Chapter 1 programs. Therefore, most school districts further target scarce Chapter 1 resources to elementary school students, out of a belief in the value of countering academic deficit with early enrichment. Thus 90 percent of all Chapter 1 students are in the elementary grades, substantially exceeding the overall percentage of public school students in elementary school (Carter, 1984).

### Compensatory Education Program Structures

Chapter 1 compensatory education is delivered in several classroom arrangements: *pull-out instructional programs* that provide instruction in locations outside the regular classroom; *add-on instructional programs* that provide instruction at times other than the regular school day or year (before or after school, before kindergarten or during summer school); *in-class instructional programs* that provide services to students within their regular classrooms; or *replacement instructional programs* that provide all the instruction Chapter 1 students receive in a given subject area, usually in a separate class containing only compensatory education students.

**Pull-Out Programs**. Pull-outs can be either "limited" pull-outs, which consume less than 25 percent of the regular class time from which the Chapter 1 students are removed (as little as 15 minutes), or "extended" pull-outs, which comprise 25 percent or more of the class time (up to an hour). Often, particularly at the elementary level, pull-out arrangements are coupled with in-class arrangements: inside the classroom, Chapter 1 assistance is provided by compensatory education specialist or an aide, while in the separate room a teacher is usually in charge. At the secondary level, pull-outs often last 45 minutes a day, or the equivalent of an elective period (Knapp, Turnbull, Blakeley, Jay, Marks, & Shields, 1986).

Pull-out instruction is usually associated with smaller instructional groups, reduced staff-to-student ratios, more student on-task behavior, less teacher time in behavioral management, a more harmonious classroom environment, better organization of activities, and better cognitive and on-task monitoring (Carter, 1984). However, not all teachers take advantage of the small group situation to offer more student-teacher interaction than they do in a larger classroom. Moreover, pull-out instruction is generally more costly.

There are also unintended negative effects of pull-out programs. Chapter 1 students may actually receive less total instructional time in a particular subject than other students because of the time spent transferring to a different location and the time devoted to receiving special compensatory education services. Students may also not see the relationship between a subject taught in the regular classroom and the same subject taught in the Chapter 1 setting. There is often also a stigma attached to being pulled out of classrooms for special instruction, which may encourage regular teachers to have lower expectations for these students and to give them simpler tasks to complete. Pull-out instruction can also mean racial segregation: since minority students receive more compensatory education than white students, they are typically pulled out of less segregated classrooms and sent to more segregated classrooms to receive special instruction. In addition, there is often a lack of communication and coordination between the Chapter 1 and the regular instructor, which may create tension for socially and emotionally vulnerable Chapter 1 students. Finally, pull-out instruction takes place in homogeneous groupings, and low-achievers tend to do better academically in heterogeneous classes (Wilkinson, 1986).

**Add-On Programs**. Add-on instruction can take place at any grade level as well as any time of day or year beyond the regular instructional times. By their very nature, the most obvious difficulties of add-on programs arise in scheduling and in providing transportation. Based on research suggesting the effectiveness of early achievement, add-on programs are often used at the pre-kindergarten level or to extend kindergarten to a full day.

Many educators support add-ons because other research suggests that more instructional time increases achievement; however, because student engagement does not necessarily increase with time spent in school, evidence is mixed about the effectiveness of adding to the number of hours a student spends in school each day, week, or year. The most common form of add-on instruction in Title I (the most recent data available) is in summer programs. Based on evidence that low-achieving students may have "summer losses" relative to other students, many administrators encourage summer school programs. Yet the evidence is mixed on both the loss without summer programs, and the possible gains (or decreased losses) that Chapter 1 summer programs can generate (Ascher, 1987).

**In-Class Programs**. In-class instruction furnishes extra enrichment to students within their regular classrooms. Although many pedagogical arguments in favor of in-class compensatory education could be extrapolated from the general research literature, Chapter 1 in-class programs are actually rare. Thus, little Chapter 1 evidence directly supports the success of this structure. What existing anecdotes and conjectures suggest is that in-class learning offers a number of advantages:

- it can lower the student/adult ratio by providing in-class aides;
- more time can be used for learning because no time is spent in transporting students to and from pull-out programs; and
- in-class arrangements are cheaper than pull-outs, particularly when aides are used.

However, when the Chapter 1 teacher is a compensatory education specialist, in-class programs may create territorial uneasiness on the part of both the regular teacher and the specialist (Ascher, 1987).

Research suggests that more must be done if in-class programs are to fulfill their potential. Methods proven successful in teaching heterogeneous groupings in other situations--cooperative learning and peer tutoring, for example--should be applied to classes with Chapter 1 students. However, since successful teaching in heterogeneous classrooms requires special training, it has been suggested that compensatory education specialists do this training. Given the mixed evidence about the current effectiveness of compensatory instruction specialists, training regular teachers to teach in heterogeneous classrooms may well be a better use of the specialists' time (Archambault, 1986).

**Replacement Programs**. Replacement programs provide Chapter 1 students with all the instruction they are to receive in a given subject, usually in a separate class containing only compensatory education students. Replacement programs place the responsibility for educating the student in the hands of one teacher with no outside interference, and there are no "special" compensatory education teachers, aides, or supervisors (Holley, 1986). A district can legally use a "replacement" if it contributes its own resources. Most replacement programs in one sample were reading or math programs that lasted the equivalent of a class period, but some districts have day-long replacement programs, particularly at the first grade level (Knapp, et al., 1986).

**Class Size, Time, and Achievement**. The meta-analysis conducted by Glass and Smith (1978) of 77 studies concluded that receiving instruction in a small class increases achievement. The effects on achievement increase as the class size is reduced, and over longer periods of instruction the benefits of smaller class size increase. Despite disputes over these findings, critiques of this meta-analysis arrive at a similar conclusion: learning in small classes tends to benefit lower ability students more than students of average ability, and small classes can positively affect the academic achievement of the disadvantaged students served by Chapter 1 compensatory education programs. In addition, the effects of small group instruction are most dramatic when the group consists of one to five students. Because Chapter 1 allows for more teachers, instructional support staff, and specialists, it is actually possible for compensatory education students to be instructed in smaller groups to their academic benefit (Cooper, 1986).

Smaller classes also result in better teacher morale and improved attitudes toward students, as well as better student attitudes toward teachers and school and improved self-concept and motivation. In smaller classes there is also more individualization and a higher quality instruction (the effects are greatest for children under 12 and decrease with older students). In smaller instructional groups there is more student time-on-task, less teacher time on discipline and control, a more harmonious class environment, a higher quality of cognitive teaching, better organization of activities, more feedback to students, and a greater awareness of individual responses. In general, students pay closer attention in smaller classes and have a greater opportunity to participate. Moreover, teachers are not spending time managing the group and, thus, do not have to depend on high ability students or volunteers to move the lesson along (Cooper, 1986).

The time a student spends in learning any content correlates positively with increased learning, and the relationship grows stronger the more time the student is actually engaged on-task in the learning activity (Cooper, 1986). In compensatory education many educators have advocated more allocated time for learning (in the form of summer school programs, year-round schooling, and extended school years) as a means to improve achievement. However, although students may modestly gain academically under these circumstances, many educators question whether the magnitude of the effect of time on achievement, relative to other potentially less costly interventions, justifies the expenditure of resources. (Ascher, 1987).

During the summer, for example, the learning rates of disadvantaged youth decrease drastically (as compared to those of advantaged youth). However, disadvantaged youth get no clear academic benefits from attending summer compensatory programs. This may be because the current level of summer instruction is low. But it may also be due to variations in students' efforts over time and irregular patterns in learning that have not been differentiated from the outcomes of different school schedules or increased schooling. Without a valid expected growth curve against which to measure summer achievement, it is not clear whether the effectiveness of any summer compensatory program should be considered as gains or arrested losses (Heyns, 1978).

In compensatory education, reducing class size and increasing instructional time may not produce the desired outcomes under all circumstances. Other contextual factors can limit achievement gains; for example, the quality of instruction (teacher adaptability and skills in individualizing instruction), and the fit between the curriculum content and tested material and local conditions (Cooper, 1986).

### Ability Grouping

In general, even with young children, age, not developmental level, determines the assignment to a particular instructional group. Within a class, student ability is a common basis for academic grouping. What is more, initial groupings tend to be stable for relatively long periods of time, and mobility, when it occurs, is usually downward (Wilkinson, 1986).

Although there is scant research on the academic and nonacademic effects of instructional grouping on students receiving compensatory educations programs, most researchers feel that homogeneous ability grouping is detrimental to students assigned to low ability groups. Students in these programs are commonly pulled out of the regular class situation and put together in low ability groups. Within the low ability learning environments, teachers tend to emphasize discipline and authority, to have lower expectations for students, and to use instructional methods and materials that fragment and routinize learning (Oakes, 1985).

There are, however, alternatives to homogeneous ability grouping. Low ability students can derive achievement benefits from being placed in student-led small heterogeneous ability groups, especially if they are taught how to interact with other students while performing an academic task and how to provide explanations to other students. Their achievement can be enhanced if efforts are made to stimulate student interaction and promote positive feedback, and if the material is highly organized. Under these conditions, disadvantaged students also need help in sequencing learning, more explanations, greater task involvement, and more answer checking activity (Wilkinson, 1986).

Cooperative learning techniques (where students work in small groups and receive rewards based on their group performance) have also had a positive effect on academic achievement, depending on the setting, design of the program, and the specific population of students. Cooperative learning also has a positive effect on race relations because there is a greater opportunity for students to choose friends of another race (Slavin, 1979). For low-ability and compensatory education students, cooperative learning may create a better environment for teaching basic skills than either traditional individual or whole-class instruction as long as there is a highly structured and focused schedule of instruction, individual accountability among student teams, and a well-defined group reward structure. Young low-ability students especially may have a better chance to succeed academically in this ideal cooperative learning situation than in others (Wilkinson, 1986).

### Compensatory Education and Student Achievement

An evaluation of the sustaining effects of Title I compensatory education suggests that receiving Title I services generally improved achievement, although the gap between Title I and regular students still widened with grade level. The evaluation also points out that, depending on district policy, some students remained in Title I programs as little as one year while others remained as long as three years (Carter, 1983).

According to the later assessment of the effectiveness of Chapter 1 services, since 1965 disadvantaged students have improved in achievement relative to the general population, although there is still a significant gap (Kennedy, et al., 1986a). (In considering these findings, it must also be remembered that both poor and low-achieving students, as well as those who are not either, receive Chapter 1 services, and that much compensatory education instruction is directly linked to achievement tests). Further, the one-year effects of Chapter 1 program were found to be:

- students receiving Chapter 1 services experience larger increases in their standardized achievement test scores than comparable students;
- students participating in Chapter 1 mathematics programs gain more than those participating in Chapter 1 reading programs;
- students in early elementary Chapter 1 programs gain more than students participating in later-grade programs; and
- evidence regarding program effects on student attitudes toward school is inconclusive.

Beyond a single school year, the longer-term effects of Chapter 1 were: (a) students who discontinue compensatory education appear gradually to lose the gains they made when receiving services; and (b) Chapter 1 students with very low achievement scores appear to maintain their relatively low academic positions and not to move ahead. However, the evidence suggests they would have lost ground relative to their peers if they had not received compensatory education services. No nationally representative studies have examined the long-term effect of Chapter 1 programs on graduation rates, future education, or adult literacy (Kennedy, et al., 1986a).

### Policy Changes in Chapter 1 Programs

Despite the current legal framework of Chapter 1 and the political feasibility of implementing alterations in Chapter 1 programs, several changes are being proposed for targeting compensatory services and organizing the programs. First, it is recommended that funds be concentrated in schools in neighborhoods with high proportions of poor children, and that these funds not be cut off when the school begins to increase its achievement rates. Chapter 1 funds should also be aimed at fewer schools, ensuring that the funding continues. In school districts with poverty concentrations, allocation of funds should be school-based, and used to benefit all students within a given school. Although this option might increase the number of high achievers participating in the program, the average achievement level of Chapter 1 students in these schools would still remain low enough to justify the continuing allocation of funds (Williams, Richmond, & Mason, 1986).

Chapter 1 has been criticized because the time given for compensatory education denies the child regular classroom instruction, and because the time spent in grouping and regrouping students decreases the time spent learning. At best, the resulting beneficial small group instruction occurs only for a fraction of the day. It has also been argued that students might achieve more if they were kept in smaller regular classrooms (rather than removed in small groups for special instruction), if the Chapter 1 teachers were more fully incorporated in the school's overall instructional program, and if students were not taught skills divorced from other learning or too fragmented to be generally useful (Kennedy, et al., 1986a). Finally, research on more effective schooling suggests that compensatory education programs like Chapter 1 may restrict the ability of the school to establish an ethos of shared academic goals, high expectations, and a strong culture of achievement, which have been shown to raise and maintain student achievement in many low-income, minority schools.

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# JUMPING THE ALLIGATORS IN THE DITCH

### *(ED312101)*

By Rims Barber

Speech presented at the Conference on the Status of Rural Education
May 1989

As a kid my friends and I would go out in the woods behind the house, where, on a typical day, one of the more athletic boys would jump across a big ditch and dare the rest of us to follow. If we made it, we felt a real high, a pride of accomplishment. If we missed, someone would kid us, but then hold out a hand to pull us from the bank to the top. The most lasting consequence of missing was a skinned knee or torn pants.

Now in rural Mississippi, there are alligators in that ditch. The consequences of missing are somewhat greater. That may raise the sense of pride in accomplishment, but it is guaranteed to discourage some from even trying. I could come up with at least a dozen "good" excuses for turning back, rather than taking the chance of being alligator bait. Besides, I'm not so sure that the accomplishment is really worth the effort; what's the big deal about being on that side of the ditch.

Being poor and black in the Mississippi Delta leaves many a young person feeling like backing away from the ditch. First, the odds are against you that you can escape the alligators. Second, the advantages of getting to the far side are not very apparent.

As I drive through the Delta, I see the clusters of rural houses that we call shotgun shacks: clapboard sides, tin roofs, three rooms, perched on concrete blocks for a foundation, no running water and an outhouse out back; down the road from the "big house" where the white folks live in comfort. This winter, during the rainy season, the creeks overflowed, surrounding these shacks with water and filling the holes in the outhouses so that the refuse floated in the yard. It seemed as if the alligators were right off the edge of the front porch, leaving no way to get to the road. The families huddled inside around a fire until the wood supply gave out, dumping their refuse out the back door, waiting for the water to go down. In the typical family of four, mom and dad use the front room as a living room and bedroom, and the kids share the smaller middle room and the bed in it. Clothes are piled in a corner or hung on a nail in the clapboard wall. There is little light, even less heat, with room for only the bed and two straight chairs because part of the room is the hallway back to the kitchen. Life here leaves you growing up with somewhat of a disadvantage. Your adult role models work when they can, bringing home four or five thousand dollars a year, go to the rural store to drink beer and wine on Saturday and to Church on Sunday. With no phone or easy transportation, there is little to do, and little hope for a change in fortunes. Expectations are so low that you convince yourself that it is impossible to jump the ditch. Besides, it seems that only white folks can attain the high ground on the other side.

The schools often reinforce this world view, either in nearly all-black public schools (whites having set up their own private academies) or finding out in the First Grade that you are not a Bluebird and being shuffled to the lower Mockingbird track where lessons are boring and repetitive, taught at half-speed so that each year you fall further and further behind. Nobody is teaching you the skills needed to jump the ditch, only those that help you plod through the muck. If you get through to the end, under the new Education Reform, you will be told to jump the alligator ditch (a competency test), or you won't get a diploma. Before facing that hurdle, a majority drop out in many school districts (in one of every four districts), and in some districts over 75% drop out between ninth and twelfth grades. Of those who actually graduate only twenty percent of the black students actually took the college preparatory curriculum. The rest ended up in General Math and Consumer Science or Auto Mechanics and were able to only score a 12 on the ACT. In towns too small to have a fast food restaurant, there is little opportunity for employment after High School for these young people. They go back to the shack they have called home and hope to get some agricultural work like their father before them.

In Mississippi half the students attend schools that are on probation because they failed the new accreditation standards (typically due to overcrowded classes or teachers uncertified to teach the subject). Some of these districts are on probation because they can't have the financial base to provide an adequate education. Others are in this condition because they just don't care about the students due to racial and economic differences. In some districts the school are principally seen as a source of employment and job patronage, with little concern for what goes on in the classroom except that the schools' job is to keep the "little beggars" off the streets during the day.

There is a general attitude that the kids are to be forced to put in their time (in school) and to be gotten rid of if they cause trouble – Johnny was a year or two too old for

Seventh grade, and six inches taller than anyone else. Slumped over in the back row of his Social Studies class, he hears the teacher assign the homework for tonight. "Read chapter six." Thumbing through his book, and finding that chapter six is thirty pages long, he mutters to himself, "Sh... I can't read that many pages before tomorrow." The girl in the seat in front of him waves her hand and says, "teacher, he said the S word." At which point Johnny is hustled down to the principal's office and given a three day suspension, from which he may or may not ever return. So kids are told to hit the streets when they don't fit in with the preconceived notions about behavior, or when they become frustrated, like Johnny, because they have never learned to master the material that they need to advance in school.

There are thousands of dropouts, like Johnny, who come from those shack houses with little sense of self and little opportunity to gain the self-confidence in school, or the expectation that they will ever have a chance to make it over the ditch and escape the alligators. It is like life is in black and white, when the rest of the world has a color TV set. Faced with "rote" teachers in the early grades, they learned little more than to sit down and shut up, hold their water until recess time, and color between the lines. Never mind phonics from teachers whose dialect is so different that nothing makes sense, cursive writing on a grooved desk, or the subtle concept behind dividing fractions by fractions. (By the way, how many of you have divided a fraction by a fraction this week?) For many of these students the expectations, both internal and external, are low and life in school seems to have little relation to anything out in the "real" world. Real life may be alcohol and sex before puberty, and violence in the roads. (I once had an eight year old pull a gun on me to protest my telling him to get out and go to school.) We are losing too many of these young people to a life stuck in the muck, unskilled and unable to improve upon the lot into which they were born.

We have got to make school an attractive place for these young people, a place where they find out that they "are somebody," a place where they can begin to dream and have those dreams nurtured. Then we have to drain the swamp, so that there are no ditches left with alligators to scare them out of trying to make the jump across. To accomplish this is a tall order, one which begins outside the classroom in the area of public policy that improves family life, income and housing, and then helps people take control of their lives so that they can make a difference. These kids need to see adults who don't see life as something that happens to you, but adults who see life as an opportunity to make something happen. This means involving their parents in a meaningful way in the operation of the schools, that empowers communities to strive for better education related to the development of their communities (rather than merely an escape), and that presents hopes and aspirations for all the young people so that they will catch hold of a dream of a better world in the place where they are and want to work to become a part of its creation. Together we can overcome the barriers to a brighter future. Apart we can only slink off into the muck or get eaten by the alligators.

# MAKING SCHOOLS WORK FOR CHILDREN IN POVERTY: A NEW FRAMEWORK PREPARED BY THE COMMISSION ON CHAPTER 1. SUMMARY

*(ED362618)*

Commission on Chapter 1
c/o American Association for Higher Education
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December 1992

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*Steering Committee

## *Foreword*

In December 1990, 28 educators, child advocates, researchers, and other concerned individuals came together to form an independent Commission on Chapter 1. We were a diverse group, with differing kinds of experience and expertise and differing views about many issues in education. But two things bound the group together—deep concern for how well economically disadvantaged children were faring in the public schools and how well they were being served by Chapter 1 of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, the largest program of federal assistance to the schools.

All of the members of the Commission have been vigorous in their support for the Chapter 1 program and believe that it has contributed significantly to the gains children in poverty have made over the last two decades. But we took the difficult step of conducting a thorough reexamination of the program because of growing evidence that, whatever its contributions in the past, Chapter 1 in its current form is inadequate to meet the challenges of the 1990s and beyond.

The document that the Commission has produced as a result of this reexamination is somewhat unusual in content. The bulk of the report consists of a "statutory Framework," which is in fact a draft of a virtually complete new Chapter 1 statute, along with section-by-section explanations and commentary.

While many groups concerned with public policy in education, health, the environment, or other areas publish reports with detailed recommendations for legislative change, the drafting by private citizens of a complex statute is a rare endeavor. So a word of explanation is in order.

When the Commission began its deliberations, a consensus rapidly emerged that our work should be founded on the conviction shared by all of us that virtually all children can learn at high levels and that establishing lesser standards and expectations for children because of their economic circumstance should not be tolerated. The challenge, we decided, was to convert Chapter 1 from a law designed to teach poor children "basic skills" to one dedicated to spurring the kinds of educational change that would result in children born into poverty acquiring high-level knowledge and skills. The measure of high-level knowledge is that young people emerge from school qualified for college or for skilled and productive work and prepared to participate fully in the social and political life of the Nation.

From the outset, it was clear to the Commission that this challenge would not be met simply by making cosmetic changes in Chapter 1. The statute would have to be rewritten to bring about deep change in the way whole school systems operate.

The needs for such reform can be articulated in compelling rhetoric, which is the usual way reports of this kind are written. But questions would remain: Are the reforms practical? Can they be made to work together to achieve the desired objectives? What are the tradeoffs in framing the requirements of the law in different ways?

The Commission decided that the only way to answer these questions and put our ideas to the test was to subject ourselves to the discipline that members of Congress must undergo in drafting specific legislative language. What resulted from our decision was a difficult but productive process. Beginning in June 1991, each of the sections of the statutory Framework has gone through several drafts, in some cases as many as seven or eight. As Commissioners focused on specific provisions, questions arose as to how they would actually work, by themselves or in conjunction with other provisions, and whether the conclusions and courses of actions contained in the Framework were based on the best evidence available. The process produced new insights at every review and new changes as well.

Such a process, we discovered, also has its costs. For one thing, statutory language is rarely, if ever, scintillating prose that makes for compelling reading. Few people have rushed to the barricades after reading a section of the U.S. Code. In addition, we discovered again and again that agreeing on broad principles or precepts is often a great deal easier than agreeing on the specific words that will implement the principles.

Despite these drawbacks, we believe the process has proved very worthwhile. In a few cases, Commissioners have been impelled to note dissents or differences of view on particular points. In other cases, Commissioners have decided not to note the differences they may have with particular formulations because they agree with the overall point being made. Most important, the Commission emerges from the process strengthened in its convictions about the elements of a truly reformed Chapter 1, because we believe we have put our ideas and the ideas of many others to the test.

This is not the end of our process. The Commission intends to use the next several months in give and take with many who are knowledgeable and vitally concerned about educational opportunity for all children. We expect that new insights will be gained that will be useful in the legislative process. At the same time, Congress will be initiating a hearing process that will result in the expression of a wide variety of views on Chapter 1 reform.

We do believe, however, that having had almost two years to work on the issues, we are putting forward a report that identifies the major issues and that will focus and inform discussion in an upcoming debate that will be vital to

American public education and to the future of millions of children.

***The Intent of the Chapter I Program***

The purpose of Chapter 1 of Title 1 of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (ESEA) is to provide financial assistance to local education agencies to meet the special needs of educationally deprived children who live in areas with high concentrations of children from low-income families. The Chapter 1 program represents the federal government's largest investment in elementary and secondary education, accounting for 19 percent of the U.S. Department of Education's total budget. In 1992, Congress appropriated $6.1 billion for basic Chapter 1 services to States and school districts. These funds serve more than 5 million children—approximately one out of every nine school-age children in the United States.

The 1988 Augustus F. Hawkins-Robert T. Stafford Elementary and Secondary School Improvement Amendments P.L. 100-297) sought to improve the educational opportunities of educationally deprived children by helping them succeed in their regular school program, attain grade-level proficiency, and improve achievement in basic and more advanced skills. The new priorities reaffirm the purpose of Chapter 1 as set forth in the foreword of the original statue (P.L. 89-10):

> *The Congress hereby declares it to be the policy of the United States to provide financial assistance to local educational agencies serving areas with concentrations of children from low-income families to expand and improve their educational programs by various means (including preschool programs) which contribute particularly to meeting special educational needs of educationally deprived students.*

NATIONAL ASSESSMENT OF THE CHAPTER 1 PROGRAM
*Interim Report*
U.S. Department of Education
June 1992

## *Issues and Rationale for the Commission's Recommendations*

## PART I

### *Issues and Rationale*

In 1983, on the release of *A Nation at Risk*, the Chairman of the National Commission on Excellence in Education summarized the Commission's central conclusion with these words:

> *We expected less of our young people, and they gave it to us.*

Across America, heads nodded in response. These words had more than a ring of truth for millions of parents, grandparents, and other observers of contemporary education, who had watched—and worried—while a generation of young people seemed to progress through school literally without intellectual challenge.

Left unspoken at that time, however, was an even more painful truth: that the *low* expectations in our suburban schools are *high* in comparison to expectations in urban schools and rural schools with concentrations of children in poverty. And that this absence of challenge, of rigor, is dulling the minds and dashing the hopes of millions of America's children. Our low expectations are consigning them to lives without the knowledge and skills they need to exist anywhere but on the margins of our society and consigning the rest of us to forever bear the burden of their support (see Figure 1).

That minority and low-income children often perform poorly on tests is well known. But the fact that they do so because we systematically—and willfully—expect less from them is not. Most Americans assume that the low achievement of poor and minority children is bound up in the children themselves or their families. "The children don't try." "They have no place to study." "Their parents don't care." "Their culture does not value education." These and other excuses are regularly offered up to explain the achievement gap that separates poor and minority students from other young Americans.

But these are red herrings. The fact is that we know how to educate poor and minority children of all kinds—racial, ethnic, and language—to high levels. Some teachers and some entire schools do it every day, year in and year out, with outstanding results. But the Nation as a whole has not yet acted on that knowledge, even though we need each and every one of our young people to master high-level knowledge and skills.

**Number and Percent of U.S. Children Under 18 In Poverty, By Race and Hispanic Origin*, 1990 Census**

| United States | Number of Children In Poverty *1990 census* | Percent of Children In Poverty *1990 census* | Percent Increase In Poverty Rate *1980 census to 1990 census* |
|---|---|---|---|
| All Races | 11,428,916 | 18.3 | 14.1 |
| White | 5,876,267 | 2.5 | 13.1 |
| African-American | 3,717,128 | 39.8 | 5.2 |
| Hispanic* | 2,407,466 | 32.2 | 10.8 |
| Asian-American | 346,491 | 17.1 | 14.5 |
| Native American | 260,403 | 38.8 | 19.2 |

**Hispanics may be of any race*

SOURCE: *The Challenge of Change: What the 1990 Census Tells Us About Children* 63 (Center for the Study of Social Policy, September 1992)

*Figure 1*

Instead, to those who need the best our education system has to offer, we give the least. The least well-trained teachers. The lowest-level curriculum. The oldest books. The least instructional time. Our lowest expectations. Less indeed of everything that we believe makes a difference.

Of course, these children perform less well on standardized tests; the whole system conspires to teach them less. But when the results come in, we are only too happy to excuse ourselves and turn around to blame the children or their parents.

**Chapter 1 Funding and Participation Trends, Selected Years**

| Year | Appropriations *(Inflation Adjusted)* Constant 1991-92 $ in Billions | Participation Millions | Chapter 1 $/ Participant Funding (1991-92 $) | (1991-92 $) Total Elementary/ Secondary $/Pupil |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1979-80** | 4.729 | 5.162 | 916 | 3.718 |
| 1980-81** | 4.188 | 5.076 | 825 | 3.681 |
| 1982-83 | 3.544 | 4.448 | 797 | 3.853 |
| 1985-86 | 4.049 | 4.740 | 854 | 4.419 |
| 1988-89 | 4.330 | 5.047 | 858 | 4.912 |
| 1990-91 | 4.902 | | | |
| 1992-93 | 5.944 | | | |

***Includes both Basic and Concentration Grants.*

**Source**: *National Assessment of the Chapter 1 Program: Interim Report* 146 (U.S. Department of Education, June 1992).

*Figure 2*

## THE ROLE OF CHAPTER 1

Against this backdrop of patently unequal opportunity to learn, the federal Chapter 1 program has sought to shore up the achievement of those at the bottom. Enacted in 1965, Chapter 1 was part of a powerful demand that American society live up to its ideals by extending equal opportunity to all. Since then Chapter 1 has distributed more than $70 billion to schools with concentrations of poor children to pay for extra help for students who need it. It touches one of every nine children. It influences what happens to over one-half of the schools in the country.

Primarily through Chapter 1 and related efforts, poor and minority children have gained considerable ground during the past 25 years. In the 1960s, such children dropped out of school at alarming rates; most didn't even master very basic skills. Today, virtually all poor and minority children

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master rudimentary skills, and graduation rates have increased dramatically for all but Latino students. In fact, in just 15 years, the achievement gap separating poor and minority children from other young Americans declined by nearly half, although there are numerous signs that these trends are now reversing.

But while thousands of dedicated Chapter 1 professionals and paraprofessionals were providing extra services to students who needed help mastering the basics, the rules of the game changed. Basic skills no longer count for as much as they once did. To find a secure place in the increasingly competitive and technological international economy, young people must be able to think, to analyze, and to communicate complex ideas.

Yet these needs were at odds with the original approach of Chapter 1: catch up. Most Chapter 1 employees—indeed most educators—believed that the "basics" had to be learned prior to the "big ideas" and concepts, even though research findings clearly say such learning should be simultaneous. So, largely through pullout programs of 25-30 minutes per day, children in Chapter 1 learn and relearn discrete low-level skills. They rarely know what it is like to attempt interesting content or to use knowledge creatively. Rather than experiencing the joy of wrestling with ideas, these children are more likely to spend their time circling *m*'s and *p*'s on dittos.

Acutely aware of the need for change, Congress tried in 1988 to shift Chapter 1 to higher ground. When federal lawmakers reauthorized the law that year as they have done every five years, they sought to focus instruction on high-level, as well as basic skills, to connect Chapter 1 to the regular program and to make schools accountable for progress.

Enough time has now passed to evaluate the effects of these changes. Sadly, they were nowhere near enough. The program needed an overhaul from top to bottom; what it got was a mere tuneup.

## MOVING FORWARD

The 1993 reauthorization must go farther. Chapter 1 must change fundamentally this time.

- What are the most critical deficiencies?

- A continued focus on remediation that denies the richness of learning to those who need more, not less, of what makes education engaging and exciting;

- So much focus on accounting for dollars that attention is deflected from results;

- Resources spread too thinly to make a difference in the neediest schools;

- Methods for evaluating progress that are antiquated and downright harmful; and

- A perverse incentive structure that discourages schools from working hard to improve student performance.

But the core problem with Chapter 1 is even more basic: its "add-on" design, wherein eligible students get extra help to succeed in the regular school program, cannot work when the regular school program itself is seriously deficient. Like additions to a house on a crumbling foundation, these extras can never fulfill their purpose. Unless regular teachers and building administrators see getting these children to high levels of achievement as their responsibility—and unless they are equipped with the skills to do so—the children will simply never make it. For no matter how wonderful the staff in special programs or how terrific their materials and equipment, they cannot compensate in 25 minutes per day for the effects of watered-down instruction the rest of the school day and school year. And watered-down instruction is precisely what most poor children get.

If Chapter 1 is to help children in poverty to attain both basic and high-level knowledge and skills, it must become a vehicle for improving whole schools serving concentrations of poor children. There is ample evidence to show that under optimum teaching and learning conditions—those with high expectations and skilled instruction—children *will* learn at high levels. The proof is consistent: those encouraged to work with challenging content, to solve problems, and to seek meaning from what they study will make far greater academic progress than students limited to basic skills instruction.

So, rather than simply building good programs, we must build good schools. We know how to teach *all* students successfully; there can be no excuses anymore for continued failure to do so.

## A NEW FRAMEWORK

Outcomes for poor children won't change if we simply layer these ideas in the form of additional policies and mandates on to a structure that has become obsolete. Consequently, the Commission on Chapter 1 proposes an entirely new Framework, fundamentally and profoundly different. This new Framework does not tinker. It rebuilds boldly.

At the core of the new Framework are three unequivocal beliefs: that all children can learn more, that virtually all children can learn at high levels, and that there is a solid foundation of knowledge on which teachers and principals can draw to make this happen in every one of our schools. Our message to the teachers, principals, and other adults in schools serving poor children is this:

- *You* hold in your hands the keys to the future for poor and minority children. If you have high expectations for their achievement, establish clear standards for student work, employ instructional practices with demonstrated effectiveness, and enlist parents and others in reducing barriers to learning, your students absolutely will achieve at much higher levels.

- The evidence in support of these beliefs is so convincing that we have proposed a new "compact" between the federal government and the schools serving poor children. *You* make the decisions on how to get students to high standards and how to spend your Chapter 1 money. Rather than second guessing your decisions, the *government* will invest heavily in assuring that your knowledge and skills are at their peak and that you have adequate resources at your disposal, and then hold you accountable for results.

The new Chapter 1 must be aimed at producing good schools, not simply good programs. Our goal must be high-quality schools for poor children—no exceptions, no excuses—with skilled teachers and administrators, trained, empowered, and organized to make sound decisions about the curriculum, instructions, and extra help that it will take to enable all students to meet uniformly high standards of performance.

But how does a federal program that has focused on *services* for 27 years begin to transform *whole schools*, especially when program funds amount to only a small fraction of the elementary and secondary education budget? The Commission's Framework has an eight-part answer:

- ***First***, each State must set clear, high standards for what all students should know and be able to do. These must be the same for all students: poor and rich, minority and white, Chapter 1 and non-Chapter 1. Schools are responsible for ensuring that all students are provided with curriculum, teaching practices, and assistance needed to attain these standards.

- ***Second***, do not require the low-level, norm-referenced, fill-in-the-bubble tests currently used to assess progress in Chapter 1. In their place, schools should develop ongoing means of evaluating the progress of individual students toward the standards, and states should administer new, richer, performance-based systems that measure school progress in enabling students to reach the State standards.

- ***Third***, instead of useless information on what "percentile" or "stanine" their child is in, parents should get clear information at least annually on the progress of their students toward the standards, on what the school is doing, and how they can help.

- ***Fourth***, we should invest generously—at least 20 percent of our Chapter 1 dollars—in assisting teachers, principals, and other adults in the school with the various tasks involved in transforming their school so that all students reach the standards. This help should include assistance in developing the overall capacity and focus of the school and assistance in reorienting the curriculum and deepening their knowledge of both subject matter and instructional practice. At the national level, we should invest in research, development, and dissemination of effective programs and strategies for schools with high concentrations of poverty.

- ***Fifth***, funding for this program should be concentrated more heavily in schools with concentrations of children in poverty, where the needs are far greater than in low-concentration schools. Also, Chapter 1 should be used as a lever to induce states to deal with tremendous disparities within their borders in providing educational services. If a level playing field is not provided, the notion that Chapter 1 provides for the "special needs" of disadvantaged youngsters becomes a fiction.

- ***Sixth***, current requirements that force schools to tie expenditures to individual students should be eliminated, along with perverse incentives that withdraw funding when schools make progress. Schools should receive funding based on the number of poor children they enroll and should be free to spend it in whatever way they believe will best help students meet the standards. Rather than accounting for dollars, schools should be held accountable for results.

- ***Seventh***, schools and districts should help out with family needs as well as those of children by integrating health and social services into the support system for Chapter 1 families.

- ***Eighth***, States must develop and enforce a system of incentives that rewards schools that make progress in increasing the numbers of their students who reach the standards and decreasing the number who do not even reach a low standard—and that assures change in those schools that do not make such progress. Schools in the latter category should receive considerable help. Where that help does not result in progress within a specified period, however, States must allow students to transfer out to a successful school and act immediately to change the educational environment or remove school officials (see Figure 3).

**Chapter 1: Key Changes At A Glance**

| Current | Proposed |
|---|---|
| low standards, different from other children | same high standards for all children |
| low-level tests that compare students to one another, rather than to objective standards | performance-based assessment evaluating students' progress toward standards and how to help |
| separate, pullout instruction away from other children | rich instruction and support in the regular classroom |
| little training for employees | generous investment in improving professional knowledge and skills |
| money spread thinly | greater concentration of dollars in high-poverty schools |
| detailed accounting for dollars | accountability for results |
| successful schools lose money; little change in failing schools | rewards for successful schools; help—then sanctions—for schools that do not improve |

*Figure 3*

These eight components are designed to work together. To have the desired effect on schools and, more important, on student outcomes, they cannot be decoupled. The following section describes the rationale for each in more detail.

## THE EIGHT FRAMEWORK COMPONENTS

### ■ Component One: Have States Set Clear, High Standards

The Commission believes that clear, high standards are an important first step toward transforming education in schools serving concentrations of poor children. The Commission also believes that standards should be the same in all schools, whether they serve rich or poor children. Consequently, we have included in our Framework requirements that each State develop standards of three types:

- content standards that set forth the knowledge and skills that all students must acquire;

- performance standards that establish the degree of proficiency expected of students at particular grade levels in meeting the content standards; and

- delivery standards that assure that students have a meaningful opportunity to meet the standards.

These standards, as well as any added by local communities, should drive the education of students. They should be used as the basis for State curriculum guides and frameworks, for textbook review, and for new assessment systems. Professionals in each school must have considerable latitude in developing detailed curricula and in choosing instructional strategies, but these must be carefully designed to get all students to the State standards.

It is vitally important that Chapter 1 schools be part of the national move toward high standards. Already suffering the effects of low expectations, children served by Chapter 1 would be irreparably crushed if their education were not geared to get them to the same standards as are being developed nationally by professionals in key subject areas.

### ■ Component Two: New Systems to Assess Progress Toward Standards

High standards are useful to teachers, parents, and policymakers only if they have a means of assessing whether students meet them. Currently, however, the tests mandated by Chapter 1 do not provide useful information on what students know and do not know. Instead of evaluating student progress toward important standards, these tests compare students with one another.

The Commission believes that the current reliance on narrowly constructed tests has invidious consequences, not only in Chapter 1 schools but throughout the educational system. These tests often stand in the way of more challenging teaching and learning because they emphasize discrete bits of knowledge and de-emphasize broader knowledge, especially that beyond reading and math. Studies of Chapter 1 instruction repeatedly have found that much of the time children could be focused on challenging content is spent, instead, on coaching for these narrow tests.

Fortunately, assessment programs in many States and communities are moving in new directions. They focus considerably more attention on higher order learning and employ more "authentic" techniques for evaluating student work. Because of the power of these new approaches in improving instruction, it would be terrible if Chapter 1 schools were left out of this movement because of regulatory requirements.

To assure that Chapter 1 schools are not left behind once again, the Commission Framework calls for a new, three-pronged approach to assessment that will generate information on:

- the progress of individual students in meeting State standards, to be used by teachers to improve curriculum and instruction and by parents to evaluate their children's progress;

- the national impact of Chapter 1 in enabling schools to get increasing numbers of poor students to high standards, to be used by Congress to judge the impact of the program; and

- the progress of individual schools and districts in enabling increasing numbers of their students to meet the standards, to be used as the foundation for a new outcomes-based accountability system to replace the current system, which requires schools to account for dollars rather than results.

### ■ Component Three: Inform Parents on How Well Their Children Are progressing Toward the Standards and How They Can Help

Experience with Chapter 1 has taught teachers, administrators, policymakers, and parents themselves how vital family support is to a child's success in school. Before Chapter 1, low-income parents were often locked out of their children's lives. Through Chapter 1, many parents were brought into the decision-making process, learned coping skills for themselves, and became advocates for their children.

For the past decade, however, parent involvement through Chapter 1 has been muted. The Commission believes that it must be renewed with vigor, drawing on new knowledge about how best to encourage the involvement of parents in their children's education.

There are many ways that schools can encourage parents to help their children. The new Framework allows schools discretion, yet encourages them to look beyond familiar but often superficial strategies such as asking parents to serve on advisory committees or sending them newsletters. The Framework looks toward other strategies that will enlist parents in monitoring their children's progress and working with the school to improve it, and also in monitoring the overall progress of their school. The Commission strongly suggests that a school's plans for including parents recognize the importance of enhancing family literacy. If we want students to succeed, then we also must help parents improve their own literacy skills, including non-English-speaking parents who are not literate in their home language.

### ■ Component Four: Invest Heavily in Teachers, Principals, and Other Adults in the School

The resources of Chapter 1 must be invested where they count the most—in people, specifically in teachers and building administrators. The tasks assigned by this Framework to building-level educators are numerous and complex. They include developing curriculum, redesigning instruction, planning staff development, and organizing student assistance to enable all students to meet the standards. They require educators to both think and act in entirely new ways. If the professionals in Chapter 1 schools don't get generous help as they proceed, their results will fall short of meeting the Nation's needs.

Much is known about how to improve learning outcomes for poor and minority children. This information must be shared with building-level professionals in settings that genuinely engage them with the content, with each other and outside experts—and that provide follow-up observation, coaching, and support.

But professionals must be helped, too, to learn how to invent as they go, because circumstances, school histories, and capacities vary significantly. They must have time and support to experiment, to evaluate, and to analyze. They must themselves become a learning community—focused on improving student learning.

Accordingly, this Framework calls for:

- a substantial (and increasing) set-aside for professional and school development;

- school-level decision making about professional needs; and

- State responsibility for assuring the availability in all regions of high-quality providers of professional and school development services.

The Framework also recognizes that while we already know a great deal about "what works," there are needs to improve and fine-tune what we know and to test new approaches. Thus, at the national level, the Framework calls for a small percentage of Chapter 1 dollars to be earmarked to support research, development, evaluation, and dissemination of effective programs and strategies for educators of disadvantaged children.

### ■ Component Five: Match Funding to Need and Assure Equity

All children deserve equal opportunities to learn. This is why Chapter 1 exists.

Over the years, it has become clear that the greatest educational needs exist in schools with the highest concentrations of economically disadvantaged students, but the funding formulas under Chapter 1 barely reflect this knowledge. The Framework calls for better targeting of funds to the districts and schools with the greatest needs. While all or almost all districts would continue to participate, schools with the largest concentrations of children in poverty would receive greater sums.

Resource problems, however, are not limited to the use of federal funds. Chapter 1 has been built on a fiction—that States and localities provide a level playing field for all students and that Chapter 1 funds go to meet special needs of disadvantaged students. The reality is that millions of disadvantaged students live in property-poor urban and rural areas that cannot generate sufficient dollars for education even when citizens tax themselves highly. A lack of affordable housing and continued racial discrimination prevent the families of these children from moving to districts that provide better education.

Rather than calling for exact dollar equality among districts in expenditures, the Framework proposes that States assure comparability in the provision of important education services. Experience tells us what education services make a difference to children, particularly those who are disadvantaged. Services include preschool programs, reasonable class sizes, and teachers who are experienced and working in the areas in which they receive training. States must assure that no child is deprived of these services and the opportunity to learn because of the workings of archaic systems of financing schools.

### ■ Component Six: Replace Accounting for Dollars with Accountability for results

Beyond problems with the required tests, the current Chapter 1 accountability structure has two particularly troublesome features:

- it focuses too much attention on documenting the expenditure of dollars on "eligible" students and too little attention on the academic progress of such students; and

- it punishes improvement by withdrawing dollars from schools that succeed.

The Commission proposes to deal with the latter problem—perverse incentives—by providing funds to schools based upon their enrollment of poor students. Funding would not decline if student performance improved.

The Commission proposes to deal with the former problem—excessive regulation of expenditures—by eliminating the concept of student eligibility and providing schools with flexibility on how to spend their Chapter 1 funding. Rather than pre- or post-tests and labels for "Chapter 1 children," all students in participating schools are "eligible." The focus will be on making the regular program as rich as possible, rather than on isolated, pullout services. Then, teachers and schools decide who needs special help at any point and how to provide it.

The new accountability system will be based on student outcomes, rather than on expenditure of dollars. The Commission's recommended enforcement structure (see Component 8) will provide continuing flexibility to schools that make adequate progress in getting increasing numbers of students to state standards, but will require changes in schools that do not make such progress.

### ■ Component Seven: Integrate Health and Social Service Support

Everyone knows that when children are ill, or hungry, or in other kinds of distress, it is harder for them to do well in school.

Dealing fully with these external barriers to learning is beyond the purview of an aid-to-education statute, but the Commission calls for a start by enabling schools to use Chapter 1 resources to coordinate the provision of health and social services and by asking that Governors of the States accept responsibility for preparing a plan to eliminate health and social barriers to learning. The Framework also notes an appropriate role for education officials and encourages State and local education agencies to promote co-location of social and health services at school sites—services such as the screening and treatment of children for vision, hearing, and dental problems. The Framework would also require school districts to assure that children are immunized before entering schools and screened for conditions that impair learning, such as lead exposure and abuse or neglect.

### ■ Component Eight: Reward Schools That progress and Change Those That Don't

From the beginning, there has been a tension within Chapter 1 between setting parameters and allowing flexibility. The legislative history of this program is strewn with attempts to work out how best to hold the educators accountable, while not strangling them with requirements.

The Commission believes that the best way to hold educators accountable is with student outcomes. While the Commission is not unmindful of the many reasons why the current system focuses on inputs, we see this as counterproductive. We have therefore proposed in our Framework an outcomes-based accountability system that provides tremendous flexibility to local educators, yet guarantees adequate progress of students in meeting State standards.

Each State will be required to develop an enforcement system in keeping with principles set forth in the Framework. Schools that make adequate progress in increasing the numbers of students at the highest levels and in reducing the numbers at the bottom will be rewarded in concrete ways. Schools that do not make progress will receive considerable assistance. If they still do not make progress, States must act through a series of graduated steps to "change the educational environment" in the school. Such steps might include withdrawing flexibility, replacing school leadership and/or other staff, or imposing other sanctions. In any event, students who attend consistently failing schools will have the absolute right to transfer to successful schools, with transportation provided.

## CONCLUSION:
### *The Broader Context for Reform*

Over the course of the next 18 months, we—the President, the Congress, and the American people—will make a decision that will affect the life chances of millions of American children. The decision will focus on what changes to make in the largest federal program of assistance to elementary and secondary education—the Chapter 1 program. Determinations whether to change the program fundamentally, as suggested in this Framework, or to make more modest improvements will be made at a time when there is widespread discontent, not simply with schooling for poor children but with the quality of public education generally. This broad concern is fueled by the decline in the economic status of the Nation and a widespread belief that the flaws in our education system are making the United States less and less competitive.

Despite the depth of concern, the outcome of the current reform effort is far from certain. In our judgment, one of three things may happen:

- The drive for reform may falter entirely because of an unwillingness on the part of politicians, educators, and citizens to make the structural changes and to provide the resources that are needed to make a real difference in American public education. If this happens, we will all be losers.

- The drive for reform—like past drives—may yield dividends only in wealthy school districts around the Nation, districts that already have substantial resources and that serve mainly advantaged children. If that happens, there will be a few winners, but society as a whole and most of its citizens will be losers.

- The drive for reform may be strong enough to work changes in public schools throughout the Nation. The changes may attract the most able and dedicated people to teach in public schools and involve parents and communities in supporting their youth and educating all children. If that happens, we will all be winners.

The new Framework, developed by the Commission on Chapter 1 through two years of diligent discussions and negotiations, is offered with the conviction that the third result—nationwide systemic reform of public education that provides new opportunities to children of all races and economic situations—is not only possible, but within our reach.

# PART II
## *Summary of Framework*

### SECTION I
### FINDINGS AND MISSION

In this section, the Commission has sought to distill the experience of the last quarter century with federal aid to meet the educational needs of disadvantaged children and to lay a predicate for the reforms continued in this Framework. In a series of findings and a mission statement, the Commission outlines its vision for a new Chapter 1 based on high expectations and high standards for children from low-income families.

❶ There are two core findings that, if accepted, will change the way Chapter 1 operates:

- that all children, including those who are economically disadvantaged, can learn and that virtually all children have the capacity to acquire the high-level knowledge and skills in a broad range of subjects that will allow them to participate fully in the economic, social, and political life of the Nation [§I(A)(2)]; and

- that the most urgent need for educational improvement—and hence, for federal assistance—is in schools with high concentrations of children from low-income families [§I(A)(1)].

❷ Additional findings recognize the school as the primary unit in need of change and improvement; the existence of effective strategies for educational improvement and the entitlement of all students to a curriculum and teaching practices that embody such strategies; the central role of parents as first educators of their children; and the responsibility of schools and other public agencies to work together to ensure that students receive the health and social services they need in order to learn. Other findings identify the need to eliminate barriers to learning, including inadequate education resources, ineffective tests and testing practices, and lowered expectations for poor children; and harmful instructional practices, including tracking and separating children from the regular classroom [§I(A)(3)-(13)].

❸ The Mission Statement outlines the means to be used to accomplish the central objective of the new Chapter 1: to use federal aid to assist disadvantaged children, and particularly those who attend schools with high concentrations of poverty, in attaining high-level skills and knowledge. The means include expanding preschool opportunities; helping to establish a broad and challenging curriculum in a range of subjects at each Chapter 1 school; building the capacity of all participants in the school community to meet the needs of all students; and establishing methods of school, district, and State accountability, including both incentives and sanctions, to assure that this Mission is achieved [§I(B)].

## SECTION II

## STANDARDS

Recognizing that children from low-income families have been shortchanged by low expectations and standards, this section sets forth the duties of States, school systems, and anticipating schools to establish high-level standards for all students in Chapter 1 schools, standards that are at least equivalent to those set for children who attend non-Chapter 1 schools.

❶ Primary responsibility for setting standards is placed on the states and not on the federal government. Each State educational agency (SEA) is required to develop and submit to the Secretary of Education for approval a comprehensive set of standards in three areas—content, performance, and delivery [§II(B)(1)]. The overarching standard is that all children must acquire the ability to reason, read, understand, interpret, and analyze complex material in a broad range of academic subjects; to use qualitative skills for planning, analysis, and problem solving; to speak and write effectively; to produce as well as to reproduce knowledge; and to work cooperatively in teams, as well as to think and act independently [§II(A)(1)(a)].

❷ State content standards are to set forth the knowledge and skills that schools much teach to enable all students to attain high levels of proficiency [§II(A)(1)(b)(i)]. The content standards must encompass not just the traditional Chapter 1 subjects of reading and mathematics, but also writing, science, history, and geography, and must incorporate the best standards set by professional associations and learned societies [§II(A)(1)(c)].

❸ State student performance standards are to establish the degree of proficiency expected of students in meeting the content standards and a range of intermediate standards to serve as indicators for assessing progress at various stages. Each State will spell out what knowledge and skills are needed to reach "partially proficient," "proficient," and "advanced" evels of achievement at four grade levels [§§II(A)(1)(b)(ii) and II(A)(1)(d)].

❹ State delivery standards include a series of measures to assure that schools and teachers are provided with the means to meet the content standards and that students have a meaningful opportunity to meet the performance standards. Delivery standards will include, for example, the employment of appropriately trained, certified staff who are teaching in their areas of training or certification; the provision of appropriate materials and equipment; and the maintenance of facilities that are clean, safe, and drug free [§§II(A)(1)(b)(iii) and II(A)(1)(e)].

❺ The section further requires that school districts and participating schools take steps to inform members of the school community about the new State standards, to consider whether to adopt supplemental local standards, and to revise their curriculum and instruction in accordance with the new standards [§II(C)].

## SECTION III

## ELIGIBILITY AND FISCAL REQUIREMENTS

This section spells out the requirements that must be met by school districts and schools, as well as by State educational agencies, in order to receive Chapter 1 funds. The section also prescribes permissible uses of Chapter 1 dollars and outlines the formulae by which the funds will be allocated within States to the SEA and to school districts and schools.

❶ While local educational agencies (LEAs) with 10 or more poor children will continue to be eligible for Chapter 1 assistance, the SEA will allocate Chapter 1 funds to LEAs according to a formula that will weight the aid on a sliding scale toward the highest poverty LEAs in the State [§§III(A)(1) and III(A)(3)(b) and (c)].

❷ A school will be eligible to Receive Chapter 1 funds if its percentage of poor children is at least 30 percent or is at least that of the LEA as a whole. The current "no-wide variance rule" that allows many very low poverty schools to participate would be deleted. Provision is made for certain otherwise ineligible schools to be served when such schools participate in a desegregation plan [§III(A)(4)].

❸ LEAs are required, however, to channel funds only to that number of schools in which high-quality programs can be delivered. Allocations to schools will be based solely on the number of children from low-income families enrolled, and will not be based on the number of low-achieving students [§III(A)(5)].

❹ The Framework deletes all child-eligibility requirements currently in the law, eliminating, for example, the requirement to serve only children identified as "educationally deprived" in particular subject areas and grades. Instead, participating schools and school districts will determine how best to allocate resources to ensure that all children, including all children from low-income families, move toward high levels of proficiency [§III(A)(6)].

❺ LEAs may use Chapter 1 funds for a broad range of educational purposes designed to help students and schools attain the standards. Safeguards are maintained, however, to assure that programs and expenditures are comparable among participating and nonparticipating schools and that Chapter 1 dollars supplement, rather than supplant, local efforts [§III(A)(7)].

❻ States must comply with all portions of the law in order to receive Chapter 1 assistance, including a new provision to require comparability of "essential educational services" among all schools and school districts in the State [§III(B)(1)]. The Secretary of Education is required to collect and publish data necessary to determine compliance and to assess the impact of school finance systems on resources available to disadvantaged students. This provision is intended to deal with the gross inequities that frequently result from State finance systems and that often deprive economically disadvantaged students of needed educational resources [§III(B)(2)].

❼ States may reserve for the SEA certain percentages of their allocation necessary to fund capacity-building programs, to administer and develop new assessments and accountability systems, and to administer the program [§III(B)(3)].

## SECTION IV

## HELP AND CAPACITY-BUILDING

This section identifies the steps to be taken by schools to strengthen instruction and by school districts and SEAs to assist schools in that process.

❶ The cornerstone is a biannual school achievement plan that each participating school will develop with input from the entire school community, including parents, teachers, the principal, and other staff. In preparing its plan, each school is asked to analyze student achievement patterns and progress toward the standards and then to identify steps it will take to improve students' performance. The plan will include staff development and parent involvement components, a budget, and a timeline for school improvement activities [§IV(A)(2)(a)(i) and (ii)].

❷ Each participating school must spend at least 10 percent in years 1 and 2, 15 percent in year 3, and 20 percent in each year thereafter on staff development and school improvement efforts [§IV(A)(3)(a)].

❸ Participating schools must also take steps to ensure that individual students who have trouble meeting the standards are provided with effective extra help, as determined by the school, in consultation with parents [§IV(A)(2)(a)(iii)].

❹ LEAs are permitted (although not required) to develop districtwide capacity-building programs, which, like the school-based efforts, must be based on an analysis of student achievement patterns. LEA programs will serve to assist participating schools in preparing their achievement plans, in identifying needs for staff development, in coordinating staff and parent training among schools with similar needs, and in evaluating services and programs purchased with Chapter 1 dollars [§IV(A)(2)(b)].

❺ Because the Commission views the upgrading of teacher skills as a very high priority, the Framework calls on States to design and carry out a strategy to ensure the availability to participating schools of high-quality professional development and school improvement assistance. SEAs must inventory and analyze available sources of such assistance, take steps to increase the availability of high-quality assistance, and disseminate to schools and school districts information about effective educational practices and programs available to them [§IV(A)(2)(c)]. To carry out these purposes, a percentage of each State's total allocation is reserved to SEAs to enable them to award capacity-building grants to organizations, universities, school districts, and others. Eight percent is reserved in 1994 and 1995, seven percent in 1996-1998, and four percent in each year thereafter [§IV(A)(3)(c)]. SEAs are also required to assist LEAs [§IV(B)].

❼ The Secretary is directed to publish and disseminate widely to educators and parents "Guidelines for Effective Staff Development and School Improvement," with an emphasis on effective approaches to educating disadvantaged children and to schoolwide reforms [§IV(A)(5)].

❽ To attract and retain the most capable teachers at schools serving disadvantaged students, a new federal program will be established, in addition to Chapter 1, to provide bonuses to teachers employed in participating schools with enrollments of at least 75 percent economically disadvantaged children. In addition, these teachers must be certified by the National Board of Professional Teaching Standards [§IV(C)].

## SECTION V

### PARENT EMPOWERMENT

This section calls upon each participating school to implement a parent training and involvement program designed to empower parents to make important contributions to their children's education.

❶ Schools must prepare and disseminate to parents a written parent involvement plan, with input from parents, and, in the case of secondary schools, from students as well. The plan will become part of the school achievement plan [§V(A)(2) and (B)].

❷ The parent involvement program must include activities designed to achieve involvement of parents in the education of their own children (e.g., through family literacy programs, home-based educational activities, and parent education and training); to provide understandable information to parents on how to become involved at home and at school and on the requirements (e.g., standards, assessments) of Chapter 1; and to guarantee reasonable access to observe classrooms and to review all documents related to the school's and LEA's compliance with the Act. Each participating school also must report to parents on their children's progress, must provide training on how to work with parents to teachers and other staff, and must assure that information is communicated effectively to parents with limited literacy or English proficiency [§V(B)].

❸ LEAs must assure that participating schools comply with the parent empowerment requirements. LEAs are also asked to involve businesses and community-based organizations in parent involvement initiatives [§V(A)(3)].

❹ The section also establishes a network of federally funded Parent Information and Resource Centers. The Centers—one in each State, and five others to serve rural and urban areas—would be modeled after those established under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act. The Centers' mandate would be to provide information, training, and other assistance to parents, particularly to low-income parents, of children enrolled in participating schools [§V(C)].

## SECTION VI

### HEALTH AND SOCIAL SERVICES

This section stems from a recognition that health and nutritional deficits, as well as other social problems, often prevent children from learning. The provisions of the section require States and school districts to identify health and other barriers to learning faced by children in participating schools and to take steps to bring low-income children and their families closer to obtaining the health and social services that are prerequisites to educational achievement.

❶ Each State must prepare, on a two-year cycle, a plan to eliminate barriers to learning, which identifies barriers to learning faced by low-income children (including, e.g., poor health, poor nutrition, and inadequate housing). The plan must also identify measures to be taken to eliminate the barriers, including, for example, integration of services and co-location of health and social services at Chapter 1 schools [§VI(B)(1)].

❷ The State must widely disseminate this plan and involve a broad range of State agencies, LEAs, and others (including teachers and parents) in its preparation [§VI(B)(2) and (3)].

❸ Every two years, the State must issue a report card on progress made under the plan [§VI(B)(4)].

❹ Each LEA must report, on a two-year cycle, to the State on barriers to learning within its jurisdiction, on the extent to which efforts, including additional resources and interagency collaboration, might increase access to vital services, and on measures the LEA intends to take to ease or eliminate the barriers [§VI(C)(1)].

❺ Each LEA must also ensure that all children attending participating schools are fully immunized upon entering school, are screened for health and other conditions that may impair learning, and are properly referred by school officials to appropriate services in the community [§VI(C)(3)(a)].

❻ LEAs are permitted to use Chapter 1 funds in carrying out their duties under this section (e.g., for screening and referral and to facilitate collaboration with other agencies) although Chapter 1 funds may not be spent on direct services to children and families [§VI(C)(4)].

## SECTION VII

### ASSESSMENT

This section spells out the components of a new, three-pronged system of assessment. It is designed to replace the current system of norm-referenced tests, a system the Commission has found both to emphasize low-level skills and to be an ineffective measure of student achievement. Provisions now in the law authorizing use of these low-level tests would be repealed on the effective date of the reauthorization [§VII(D)(3)].

❶ Each school district and participating school will conduct *assessments to aid student progress*. These assessments will be controlled and administered by classroom teachers and will serve as an aid in assessing the progress of individual students in meeting the standards. This section also requires schools to explain the school's curriculum and forms of assessment to parents, students, and teachers and to report to parents on their children's progress toward meeting the standards [§VII(B)].

❷ As a second prong, the Framework calls on the Secretary of Education to report biannually to the Congress and the public on the effectiveness of the Chapter 1 program in achieving its goals for low-income children. In making this *assessment to evaluate Chapter 1*, the Secretary may rely on the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) or other assessments that are consistent with this Framework. These evaluations should lead to improvements in Chapter 1 [§VII(C)].

❸ As a third prong, each State is required to develop and submit to the Secretary a set of *assessments for accountability purposes* that will gauge the progress of school districts and Chapter 1 schools in meeting the content standards established by the State [§VII(D)(1)]. The key features of these new assessments will be:

- They will be conducted annually in all participating schools and with at least a sample of all students in the schools [§VII(E)(1)(a)].

- They will be conducted at four grade levels: at completion of grade 1, at some point during grades 2-5, during grades 6-9, and during grades 10-12 [§VII(E)(1)(b)].

- The Grade 1 assessments will measure oral language, emerging reading, and social skills. The assessments in the later grades will measure proficiency in subjects including reading, mathematics, writing, history, geography, and science and will measure the proportions of students who are "advanced," "proficient," "partially proficient," and "not proficient" in these subjects [§VII(E)(2)].

❹ The new assessments will be accompanied by safeguards, including requirements of validation to assure racial and gender fairness [§VII(D)(5)] and that limited-English-proficient students are assessed, to the extent practical, in their language of instruction [§VII(E)(2)(f)]. Other provisions would discourage retention of students in grade, require the assessment by the LEA of students who move from school to school over the course of the school year, and set terms for participation of the disabled and limited-English-proficient students in the assessments [§VII(E)(1)].

❺ Prerequisites to the implementation of these assessments include: broad dissemination of information about the new standards and assessments to parents, teachers, and students; steps to revise and align the curriculum to the new standards; and implementation of staff development and school improvement initiatives to equip students with the ability to perform successfully on the assessments [§VII(F)].

❻ In administering assessment requirements, the Secretary of Education will be aided by the advice and guidance of a new Commission on Student Assessment (CSA) to be authorized by Congress and established by the National Academy of Sciences. The CSA will review all State-developed assessment systems and advise the Secretary whether they meet the criteria established under the law. CSA will also monitor and report on the implementation of the new assessment systems [§VII(D)(6)].

## SECTION VII

## ENFORCEMENT

This section describes the key elements of an outcome-based accountability system and the methods of enforcement that will be used to achieve its objectives.

❶ Enforcement tools will not be dictated by the federal government but will be selected by the States largely from among remedies that often are already provided in their own laws and constitutions governing public education. Each State will be required to develop and submit to the Secretary of Education by 1996 an enforcement plan designed to assure school and school district compliance with the provisions of this Act and, significantly, to assure that within five years after completion of the first assessment, all participating schools will have made adequate progress in reaching required levels of proficiency [§VIII(A)].

❷ Adequate progress shall be defined by the Secretary of Education in regulations. It will call for an increase in the proportions of all students, and of all low-income students, who achieve at "proficient" or "advanced" levels. It will also call for a decrease in the proportions of all students, and of all low-income students, who are at the "not proficient" level. Adequate progress will be determined through assessments in a broad range of subjects [§VIII(B)].

❸ When schools make adequate progress, States may reward them with benefits, including greater decision-making authority; access to supplemental resources to sustain success or to serve larger numbers of children; and recognition, bonuses, and other benefits to staff [§VIII(A)(5)(a)].

❹ As to schools that fail to make adequate progress, the enforcement process initially will involve a series of graduated steps to be taken after a school is identified as failing, but before sanctions are imposed. This measured response—including technical assistance, consultations in the school community about corrective steps, and visits from an inspection team that can requisition any needed resources —should enable many schools to come into compliance without the imposition of sanctions [§VIII (A)(4)].

❺ Where school systems continue to fail, despite assistance, sanctions may include institutional penalties, such as loss of decision-making authority and, ultimately, closing the school, as well as individual penalties, such as reductions in pay and dismissal and/or transfer of the principal and other staff [§VIII (A)(5)(b)].

❻ In any event, parents whose children attend failing schools will have a right to transfer their children from failing to successful schools, with transportation provided where needed. This is a form of public school choice, but one that is tailored to the needs of disadvantaged students and that protects the vitality of public schools [§VIII (A)(5)(c) and (f)].

❼ Penalties will also be directed toward school districts that, as a whole, fail to make adequate progress; and these may include dismissal of the superintendent and other administrators; appointment of a receiver or trustee to administer the district in lieu of the superintendent and local school board; and annexation by other school districts [§VIII (A)(5)(e)].

❽ Rights under the Act will be secured by requiring states to provide an accessible administrative process for resolving complaints by parents, students, and teachers and by encouraging other informal methods of dispute resolution. Parents and teachers may also initiate legal action in federal court to enforce many of the Act's provisions [§VIII (A)(6)].

## SECTION IX

## RESEARCH, DEVELOPMENT, EVALUATION, AND DISSEMINATION

This section provides for a portion of the Chapter 1 appropriation to be reserved by the Secretary of Education for the purpose of funding research, development, and evaluation.

It also provides for dissemination of information on effective practices and strategies for the education of economically disadvantaged children. Changes in educational systems brought about as a result of this legislation will also be evaluated [§IX].

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*The Commission members listed below submitted supplementary statements concerning the Framework. They appear in the Commission's first report.*

*Henry Levin, George Madaus, Joe Nathan, Delia Pompa, Sharon Robinson, Bella Rosenberg, Paul Weckstein, Anne Wheelock and Robert Witherspoon.*

*Additional copies of this and the full report are available from:*

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# TREND 2:
# THE INFLUX OF CHILDREN AND FAMILIES WHOSE HOME LANGUAGE IS NOT ENGLISH

From 1966 to 1996, the educational community has had to respond to increasingly large numbers of families from foreign lands taking refuge in the United States. This situation has been precipitated by upheaval in Asia, (Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia) and in Latin America and the Caribbean (El Salvador, Nicaragua, and Cuba among others). Many emigrating families left their homelands in haste, arriving here largely unfamiliar with the United States and its culture–let alone with English speaking skills or an understanding of the American educational system.

Over time, there have been distinguishable trends in both the countries of origin represented by these groups as well as in the numbers of immigrants. In the 30-year period examined here, immigrants have come in waves that corresponded to political, economic, or social crises in their homelands. By the early 1970s, there were nearly as many El Salvadorians living in Los Angeles as there were in the capital city of San Salvador. Today, it is estimated that one in every six students in California schools comes from a family where English is not the primary language spoken at home. This trend is anticipated to spread nationwide (Speech by T. Zawaiza, U.S. House Subcommittee on Select Education, July 18, 1991).

In conducting this review, a clearly discernible progression of responses by the schools became evident. Moreover, these responses can be directly tied to legal mandates. In 1968, the Bilingual Education Act (Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act [ESEA]) was passed, providing direction for States with large numbers of non-English speaking students. The Bilingual Education Act provided funding to develop programs to educate language minorities using both their native languages and English. The Act has been reauthorized (with amendments) every four years since 1968.

In 1970, the Office of Education published a paper known as the "May 25 Memorandum" that clarified Title VI of the 1964 Civil Rights Act as it applied toward language minority students:

> Where the inability to speak and understand the English language excludes...children from effective participation in the educational program offered by a school district, the district must take affirmative steps to rectify the language deficiencies...

Citing this paper in its landmark decision of 1974, the Supreme Court affirmed this principle in *Lau v. Nichols*. What *Lau* established was the concept that for language minority students, equity involves differential treatment:

> There is no equality of treatment merely by providing students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers and curriculum.

Guidelines on how school districts ought to apply *Lau* were developed jointly by the Offices of Education and Civil Rights in 1975 in a paper entitled, *Task Force Findings Specifying Remedies Available for Eliminating Past Educational Practices Ruled Unlawful Under Lau v. Nichols.*

Additionally, the Equal Opportunities Act of 1974 ensured that for language minorities:

> No state shall deny equal opportunity to an individual on account of his or her race, color, sex, or national origin by...the failure by an educational agency to take appropriate action to overcome language barriers that impede equal protection by its students...

These legal guarantees, formally established in the late 1960s through the mid-1970s, form the contextual background for this review. How the schools have responded to the problems of language minority children has, in regard to this trend, been somewhat preordained by law. However, the nature of the school's response has varied greatly over time and continues to do so today.

### Programs for Children of Migrant Workers

The first trend noted in the literature was not a focus on programs for immigrant children, but rather on programs for children of migrant worker families. These children were singled out because they have historically been categorized as being "at risk." Moving with their parents on a seasonal basis, migrant children typically do not stay in one place long enough to get the educational services they need. In the 1969 report by McDonald and Moody, *The ABC Project: A Report on the Program for Migrant Child Education at Tolleson Elementary School*, the authors identify four programming needs for children: (1) to aid nutritional deficiencies, (2) to provide medical and health screenings, (3) to test for appropriate placement, and (4) to provide an instructional program that offers experiences in listening, speaking, reading, writing, and social skills. From this point on in the literature, these four components are regarded as standard.

### ESOL Programs for Children and Parents

Typically, initiatives undertaken on behalf of children from different cultural backgrounds were funded by federal government sources under Title VII. By the early 1970s, programs were being developed along the lines of a single concept: teaching children whose primary language was not English. These programs, which were identified as English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL), proliferated quickly as more and more refugee children arrived in the United States.

Early on in the ESOL movement there was recognition that these programs might be putting children in conflict with their home environments. In the 1973 report, *Asian Newcomer Parent Program: Second Year Report*, the parent is identified as an important component in the child's learning. In the program described here, parental screening was done to identify family, medical, and employment needs. In addition, considerable effort was undertaken to orient parents to the community and to the educational system. Most of all, parents were guided to programs in the study of English and to the reading of English at their own appropriate levels. Clearly, it was deemed important to help adults become proficient in English if programs targeted at their children were to succeed.

### Bilingual Programs

In the 1970s, with so many children being served by programs designed to help those labeled "educationally deprived due to income level and lack of experience with English" and the primary culture, a much needed evaluation effort was launched by the Office of Education. In the 1972 report included here, *Title I ESEA Case Study: The Bilingual Program, Tucumcari, New Mexico*, an indepth look is presented of an exemplary bilingual program that had been in operation since 1966. The Tucumcari program illustrates a common vision shared by bilingual programs during these years: to create a balance between the need to help children fit into the mainstream of American education and the need to encourage retainment of the children's cultural heritage.

In the mid to late 1970s, a number of issues relating to bilingual education were debated in the literature. One of the most controversial was whether or not children should be encouraged to develop skills in their native tongue as well as English. In the 1979 article by the State of Washington Bilingual Consultant *(A Short Guide to Appropriate Transitional Bilingual Instructional Programs)*, the author takes the position that there needs to be reinforcement of the child's home culture to build a strong self-image which will facilitate the smooth adaption to the dominant culture.

### Nonstandard English

A significant addition emerged in the late 1970s, with the recognition of the needs of minority children who speak a nonstandard English dialect, also known as Black English. In the article entitled *Communication Education and the Teaching of English as a Second Language*, the author asserts that "Pupils who come to school speaking a dialect other than the standard should not be made to feel inferior in any way." It was the sentiment of this paper that ESOL ought to include teachers and curriculum designed to deal with the dialects found among speakers of English in the United States.

### Parent and Community Involvement

Continuing into the 1980s, there was acceptance of the educational tenet that for students with language difficulties, parent and community involvement were critical to success. This principle was even translated into law with the requirement that all school districts receiving Title VII funds establish Parent Advisory Councils (PACs). In a 1984 publication entitled *A Manual for Encouraging Parent-Community Involvement in Bilingual Education and English as a Second Language Programs*, guidelines are offered for developing and implementing a model parent/community involvement component.

### English Language Skill and the Curriculum

In much of the earlier writing, the goal of helping children with language deficiencies was to provide learning experiences that would result in mastering English. The expectation was that learning to speak, write, and communicate in English would transfer to other areas of the curriculum. The 1984 article *Walton High School Bilingual Language Arts Survival Training, 1983-1984*, is an evaluation of a New York City program that attempted to provide instruction across the curriculum. Regarding itself as a transitional program for integrating students into society, the Walton program provided instruction in English as a Second Language (ESL) and native language arts **plus** bilingual instruction in mathematics, science, social studies, typing, and career orientation. The results of this infusion effort were very positive, with recommendations made for expansion of bilingual education to health and computer literacy. Evaluators felt this program was truly an "equal educational opportunity."

### Equal Educational Opportunity–Continued

At the forefront of the literature in the last decade is the issue of equal educational opportunity. Are school districts providing language minority students with programming that upholds legal guarantees? A 1988 paper by Smith and Heflin *(An Analysis of ESL/Bilingual Education Policy in Oregon School Districts)* provides an excellent discussion of this issue. The results of an evaluation of Oregon's ESL and bilingual programs uncovered many problems. One glaring oversight, according to the paper's authors, is the lack of a written state-wide policy. The authors conclude: "Apparently the standard of what practices are educationally effective is based on the perception of the ESL/bilingual program director of each district, rather than research-based principles or state or federal laws."

The most recent literature in bilingual education—like that in compensatory education—holds that the key to future success is through school reform. A keynote paper by Gilbert Narro Garcia on *Bilingual Education: A Look to the Year 2000*, calls on educators and society to change their views toward limited English proficient (LEP) students. Schools, in the author's estimation, must have faith in all students to be capable of achieving success. This means that in order for bilingual programs to work, they must be comprehensive, clearly defined and tied to student learning needs, rather than assessments.

## Summary

Bilingual education remains as "hot" a topic today as it was in 1966. Educators are still asking: Does teaching a person in a language not primarily one's own diminish the ability to learn and feelings of self-worth? How can a person retain his or her cultural identity and not have educational experiences which are inclusive of one's native language? Although a wide range of responses has been documented, many of these issues will continue to be debated.

# THE ABC PROJECT
# A REPORT ON THE PROGRAM FOR MIGRANT CHILD EDUCATION AT TOLLESON ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

***(ED032990)***

Prepared by:
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1969

## PREFACE

Our society today more than ever before is recognizing a basic need for the growth and development of the child as a unique and successful individual. This need means the development of each individual's self image, physical and emotional well being and intellectual abilities. Positive recognition and acceptance by himself and his peers is an important step to successful learning experiences.

The migrant Mexican-American child, being the largest ethnic group in Tolleson, has a very difficult time developing a positive self image. The cultural mores he has inherited are different than middle class standards and the institution he is forced to attend is not geared to meet his needs. He is limited in his ability to speak Spanish or English fluently. He thinks and talks in both languages, but he has never developed fluency in either.

The basic objectives of the ABC Project, as outlined in the following pages, are to give all disadvantaged migrant children the opportunity to develop a positive self image, build basic language communication patterns and learn about their present environment in a natural and intellectually stimulating environment.

Earl Moody
Superintendent

# THE STORY OF THE ABC PROJECT

Many first-grade children begin elementary school with a great fund of knowledge. They have a wide acquaintance with ideas, objects, and concepts. Their emotional and environmental experiences have made them quite sophisticated in the perception of their world. They have been read to, talked to, and listened to. Their basic language skills have been continuously expanded and reinforced by the adults that surround them. Historically, the school plant, the training of the teachers, the books and materials for learning have been developed with these average children in mind.

The migrant Mexican-American child also enters school with a variety of many living experiences. But in contrast to the average child, this child has not yet learned to verbalize his or her experiences and feelings in English or Spanish. Personalized meaningful communication has often been restricted to short phrases and mono-syllables. Many of these children live in conditions of economic and nutritional poverty. They suffer also from poverty in language development.

If the community or school district differs significantly from the norm, then this difference must be recognized and reflected in the curriculum that the school offers. When a community has a majority of migrant Mexican-American children enrolled in its school, special means and methods must be employed in the school to help offset the handicaps under which these children function.

In September of 1968, Tolleson Elementary School District, with the help of Title I, Public Law 89-750, E.S.E.A. Migrant funding, began a program designed to alleviate the cultural, nutritional, and health deficiencies of its children. The program called for a four pronged attack:

A. Nutrition - Each child enrolled at Tolleson Elementary School was able to enjoy a Class A lunch. The district was aware that many of its children were not taking advantage of the lunch program. This funding provided a hot lunch to children who were not able to afford it.

B. Health - The health program consisted of developing a complete health record of each child. A physical examination was given to all children in grades one through five that had not previously been examined. Dental examinations and health X-rays of all children in grades one through eight were scheduled. All immunizations were completed. Home visitation for children that were ill and an instructional program for mothers on sanitation, first aid, treatment of minor illnesses, etc. were established.

C. Guidance - The guidance counselor for the ABC Project conducted testing for evaluation, placement, and referral. His other responsibilities included curriculum consultant, in-service work, and liaison for all phases of the program.

D. Curriculum - ABC (A Basic Communication) Project - The ABC Program consisted in building sequential integrated instruction in experiencing, listening, speaking, reading and writing, and the social skills that underlie these activities. About 100 children in the first to the fourth grade at Tolleson Elementary School who were identified as lacking language development skills were placed in a non-graded instructional program. An organized sequential series of language experiences based on the unit approach helped the children develop positive ideas about themselves, the community and the world around them.

The teachers arranged a variety of instructional themes. Field trips, experience stories, visual and auditory media, puppetry and role playing were an integral part of the program and gave the language handicapped child a chance to learn independence, develop oral language patterns, and develop verbal and written communication skills.

A four level plan of communication organization was defined. The levels were constructed so that each language handicapped child could progress at his own rate, from limited communication with Non-Standard English to more effective communication with Standard English. Two or three levels of communication groups existed within each of the four classrooms. A migrant child could progress from one level of communication to the next without a change of teachers.

Initial grouping for the children in the ABC Project was by reading levels. A classroom reading inventory determined each child's independent, instructional, and frustrational reading levels in both word recognition and reading comprehension. About 25 children were assigned to a teacher team. The total instructional staff for the program consisted of a reading consultant, six teachers, and two teacher aides. This staff teamed in various combinations throughout the year in working with the children in the program.

The two major streams of classroom organization were:

(1) Structured language learning activities-where the teachers worked with identifying, refining, and extending language concepts.

(2) Independent supervised learning activities-where the children worked in small groups in the learning centers within the classroom.

Each classroom contained a variety of learning centers. Some centers were established for the year; others were maintained for a special project, season, or unit of study. Some typical learning centers were:

Science Center - This center contained a variety of plants, animal life and rocks so that the children could see the world in which they live and use words to express to themselves and others what they were able to observe, hear, feel, see, taste, and smell.

Game Center - This center provided learning experiences in following directions, taking turns, winning and losing by providing a variety of activities designed to increase reading and speaking skills.

Art Center - This table displayed an array of paper, scissors, paste, paints, magazines for cutting, and clay so that children could engage in activities designed to give an outlet for enjoyment and self-expression.

Listening Center - This center provided a collection of tape recorders, telephones, record players, listening posts, and language masters so that children could listen to a variety of prepared materials or devise a story about themselves and others. The children were allowed to operate this equipment by themselves.

Viewing Center - This center contained individual View-masters, filmstrip projectors, and other media to allow children to come in contact with the ideas of others visually.

Writing Center - Here the child expressed his own ideas with his own language. A variety of paper, writing instruments, words of high frequency, special interest word lists for topics or seasons were provided. Each child made a collection of words in categories which were used frequently in writing. Story beginnings to be finished by the children, pictures, and blank books were used.

Book Center - This collection contained books for browsing and reading. There were informational books available to serve all curriculum areas. Some books were used by the teacher in directed reading activities.

## THE FOUR LEVELS

The organizational pattern of the ABC Project varied dramatically from the lockstep whole class instructional pattern seen in the traditional elementary curriculum. The ABC teachers developed a levels system which attempted to establish the experiences, listening and speaking skills, reading and writing abilities and social skills deemed necessary for developing a positive self image. The philosophy of continuous education and a process versus a product approach to problem solving was initiated. There were no prescribed texts, no emphasis on mastery of subject matter as an end in itself. The units of instruction emphasized the development of the child and his interests, abilities and experiences. Subject matter was explored in a way that allowed the child to grasp its functional value in relation to the problems of everyday living. The ultimate goal of the levels plan was to enable the migrant child to acquire the basic tools needed for a positive self image and a desire to continue in school. For the first year, teachers developed their curriculum organization with sequential instruction in experiencing, listening, speaking, reading and writing.

## LEVEL ONE
## AGES 6 - 8

By Kathy Placht

The level one children enrolled in the ABC Project were on a pre-reading level. They were reluctant to speak, had a minimal language level to express their thoughts and were lacking the basic listening and observing skills that are necessary prerequisites to reading and writing. Level oneemphasized the basic skills that many middle class children have already obtained by the time they enter school. Some of the objectives for the successful completion of Level One are given below:

A. EMPHASIS ON EXPERIENCING

1. OBSERVATIONS

a. talks freely about his own personal experiences

b. participates in numerous field trips designed to increase his knowledge and experiences

c. discusses field trips and his impressions, thus becoming more aware of the world around him

d. learns to observe and experiment by participating in class projects such as baking cookies or a cake, or mixing primary colors to make other colors

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2. VISUAL PERCEPTION SKILLS

    a. recognizes left and right
    b. distinguishes between objects, colors, etc.
    c. recognizes names and labels of objects
    d. handles and enjoys looking at books

3. MUSIC AND DRAMA

    a. enjoys, appreciates and responds well to good music at his age level
    b. expresses himself happily through original songs and those taught to him – also through rhythms and motions
    c. learns finger plays, poems, and rhymes
    d. dramatizes stories through puppetry and role playing

4. NUMBERS

    a. is able to count to ten both with a group and alone
    b. demonstrates the value of a penny and a nickel
    c. masters simple addition to six

5. COORDINATION

    a. uses equipment such as scissors, crayons, balance beam, pencils, balls, jump ropes, etc., to develop muscular control
    b. performs fine muscle readiness skills through activities such as stringing beads, working with puzzles, peg boards, finger puppet games, and blocks

B. EMPHASIS ON SPEAKING

1. develops basic speaking vocabulary and uses adequate pronunciation
2. talks, talks, talks ... to classmates and teacher during school and on the playground
3. dictates and discusses his own experience stories and comments on those of others
4. practices English vocabulary at school (but also speaks Spanish without being ashamed or afraid)
5. uses simple English sentences
6. is able to speak on a topic and develop a sequence of ideas
7. is able to list items in pictures

C. EMPHASIS ON SOCIAL SKILLS

Besides emphasizing the above sequences, Level One stresses social skills such as the following:

1. favorable interaction with teacher and peers
2. acceptance of responsibility for the care and organization of his own materials and belongings
3. acceptance of responsibility for his own actions
4. awareness of the necessity for taking turns and sharing
5. independence in his work
6. appreciation for the thoughts and feelings of others
7. cooperation in work and play
8. recognition and understanding of his own errors
9. persistence
10. appropriateness of behavior to a particular situation
11. self-control

In emphasizing the above areas, the primary objective of Level One is to build the self-esteem of the child in the ABC Program. He must be made to feel secure and to realize that he and his contributions are a vital part of the classroom situation.

## UNITS OF INSTRUCTION

For the first level, some of the units used during the school year are listed below. These units lasted from two to four weeks and became the vehicle by which the student moved toward increasing independence in the effective utilization of language and the development of a desire to continue throughout life in strengthening and refining the power of language competence. Self enhancement through power in language, rather than rigid narrow standards of correctness, was the central theme of the Level One ABC Project:

### TOPICS

(work
People at (school
(play

(Dwellings
Myself and Others
(Community

(Pets and domestic animals
Animals (Zoo animals
(Wild animals

Transportation

Colors - Numbers and Shapes

Seasons and Holidays

Time - Days and Calendar

Manners - Personal hygiene

Foods and nutrition

### ACTIVITIES

Participation in:
- Field trips
- Art
- Songs

Using:
- Puppets
- Role playing

Developing readiness activities such as:
- Winter Haven and Frostig
- Number concepts
- Puzzles
- Pegs
- Beads
- Games
- Cutting and pasting pictures
- Experience stories

Coordinate skills using:
- Balance beam
- Relay races, hula hoops, etc.

### SUGGESTED SOURCES OF INFORMATION FOR LEVEL ONE

| | |
|---|---|
| 1. School Readiness Treasure Chest | compiled by Beth G. Hoffman |
| 2. Sounds of Language | by Bill Martin, Jr. |
| 3. Las Cruces Gude to Teaching English As a Second Language | Las Cruces, New Mexico Schools |
| 4. Peabody Language Development Kit Level #1 | American Guidance Service |
| 5. Speech to Print Phonics | Donald D. Durrel and Helen Murphy |
| 6. Talking Picture - Story Study Prints | Society for Visual Education, Inc. |
| 7. Winter Haven Perceptual Copy Forms | Lions Club, International<br>Winter Haven, Florida |
| 8. SVE Pictures and Records | |
| 9. Language Experience in Reading Level #1 | Van Allen |

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# LEVEL TWO
## AGES 7 - 8

by Alma Gutierrez

Level Two is an extension of the basic skills learned in Level One. When a child had achieved a minimal pattern of basic skills, he progresses to a Level Two status. This progression did not always mean a change of teacher or classmates, as there are two levels of skills in operation within each classroom. Some of the objectives for the successful completion of Level Two are given below:

A. EMPHASIS ON EXPERIENCING

1. VISUAL DISCRIMINATION
    - a. discusses characteristics of objects that facilitate discrimination and identification, i.e., color, shape, and size
    - b. describes how objects are alike and how they are different
    - c. describes objects seen on filmstrips, movies, field trips, or pictures and uses proper classification
2. VISUAL COMPREHENSION
    - a. knows familiar signs and signals and their meanings and color cues
    - b. sees facial expression and body position as cues in picture stories
    - c. understands messages implicit in posters and other pictorializations
    - d. recognizes non-verbal cues typical of familiar people
    - e. can follow directions given by gestures or signs

B. EMPHASIS ON LISTENING

1. LISTENING - DISCRIMINATION
    - a. can identify and reproduce common sounds
    - b. understands common sounds and can group them by their locale, such as farm, zoo, city, etc.
    - c. is able to group common sounds by class, such as animal, machine, classroom, etc.
2. LISTENING - COMPREHENSION
    - a. can discuss familiar words and meanings
    - b. listens for words that sound alike and is asked to determine how they might be different by their usage
    - c. listens for words that have similar beginnings and what they mean
    - d. hears words that have similar endings and what they mean

C. EMPHASIS ON SPEAKING

1. SPEECH - COMPREHENSION
    - a. can use complete sentences
    - b. speaks clearly and purposefully
    - c. discusses filmstrips and movies
    - d. interprets pictures
2. SPEECH - LOGICAL ORGANIZATION
    - a. can obtain structure of basic English patterns
    - b. develops a sequence of ideas
    - c. shares turn in speaking
    - d. relates a story or experience in logical order
    - e. develops word meanings

# RESOURCES FOR LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT IN LEVEL II

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | Language Experience in Reading Level I | by Van Allen |
| 2. | Peabody Language Development Kit Level I | Lamb |
| 3. | The Illinois Plan for Special Education of Exceptional Children | The Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc. |
| 4. | Scope and Sequence Chart | Morton Botel |
| 5. | CRI | Dr. Nicholas Silvaroli |
| 6. | Developmental Skills Important to Reading Readiness | Dr. Newell G. Kephart<br>D. H. Radler |
| 7. | Organizing the Classroom for a Language Experience Approach | Roach Van Allen |
| 8. | Santa Monica Project | |
| 9. | Kindergarten Children With Perceptual Motor, and Language Difficulties | Dr. G. Wyatt |
| 10. | Pedagogical Factors Relating to Reading Disability | Marjorie Johnson and Roy Kress |
| 11. | The Developmental Program in Visual Perception | Marianne Frostig |
| 12. | Programmed Reading Workbooks Books 1-5 | M.W. Sullivan |
| 13. | Speech to Print Phonics | Durrell |
| 14. | Mathematical Awareness | John Trivett |
| 15. | The Junior Listen-Hear Program | Follett |
| 16. | Teacher's Guide for Non-English Speaking Beginners | Las Cruces, New Mexico |
| 17. | Reading Difficulties and Suggested Remedies | Rocky Mt. Educ. Lab. |
| 18. | Perceptual Forms | Winter Haven Lions Research Foundation |
| 19. | Word Building Transparencies | Ideal |
| 20. | Phonics Transparencies | Visualcrafts |
| 21. | Language Experiences in Reading Level I | Roach Van Allen |
| 22. | Do-It-Book | McCall's Golden Press |
| 23. | Basic Spelling Goals Teacher's Edition | Kottmeyer and Ware |
| 24. | Programmed Word Attack for Teachers | Wilson and Hall |
| 25. | Games for Second Language Learning | Gertrude Nye Dorry |

## LEVEL THREE
## AGES 7-12

By Ellen Wickliffe
and David Burt

At this point, the transition from speech to print is initiated. Although the ages of the children are more diverse, the skills and abilities are homogeneous. The fun aspect of reading and writing is stressed.

### A. EMPHASIS ON EXPERIENCING

1. experiences environment different from his own through filmstrips, books, magazines and newspapers
2. recognizes all letters of the alphabet and can reproduce them
3. knows common punctuation meanings
4. develops a basic sight vocabulary
5. develops beginning word attack skills
6. uses many different art materials and feels free to experiment and direct his own work creatively
7. becomes increasingly adept at solving his own problems

### B. EMPHASIS ON LISTENING

1. is able to follow oral directions
2. makes judgments and senses character's feelings from oral stories
3. can hear and write rhyming words
4. can note and recall story facts and significant details
5. produces tape recordings of plays and puppet shows

### C. EMPHASIS ON READING

1. recognizes letters and sounds of beginning consonants
2. learns common blends, compounds and contractions
3. uses structural clues in trying to attack words
4. makes substitutions of initial - consonants to form new words.

### D. EMPHASIS ON WRITING

1. learns how to print the alphabet in small letters and capital letters
2. prints name and address correctly
3. writes words from dictation
4. learns to discriminate between similar words
5. avoids common reversals of letters b, p, d, q

## SAMPLE UNITS OF STUDY IN LEVEL III

ABOUT MYSELF
ABOUT MY FAMILY
COMMUNITY
STATE
THE DESERT
ASTRONAUTS
THE SOLAR SYSTEM
WILD ANIMALS

ANIMALS AS PETS
HEALTH
FOODS
HOLIDAY UNITS
TELLING TIME
SPRING
CLASSIC STORIES

# LEVEL FOUR
## AGES 8 - 12

by Katherine J. Leslie
and David L. Evans

The communication gap is closing. Many children in Level Four have become successful in decoding words. Pride in the community, self and the school are becoming a reality. The children have become accustomed to working in small groups at various learning centers throughout the room. Differences in age are forgotten as the quest for new knowledge is undertaken. Colorful displays, dioramas and pottery are seen throughout the room.

### A. EMPHASIS ON EXPERIENCING

1. map study in which home, school, local farms, etc., are recognized
2. write and discuss experience stories after field trips to museums, post office, fire station, etc.
3. small group research on reptiles, mammals, fish, birds, and insects
4. follow historic events through the newspapers, magazines, etc.

### B. EMPHASIS ON LISTENING

1. listens to stories to distinguish inferences, note cause and effect, generalize tone and theme
2. understands parts of stories that tell who, what, when, where, how and why
3. recognizes shifts of meanings caused by using words in different contexts
4. follows more complicated oral directions with little additional teacher guidance

### C. EMPHASIS ON SPEAKING

1. groups and classifies words and facts into categories
2. carries on proper telephone conversations
3. can make proper introductions and give greetings
4. participates in choral speaking

### D. EMPHASIS ON READING

1. understands vowel rules
2. recognizes difficult vowel combinations and their pronunciations such as aw, ow, oo, and ay
3. understands prefixes, suffixes and syllabication
4. obtains word meanings from context

### E. EMPHASIS ON WRITING

1. understands how to use the elementary dictionary to find words
2. uses new words in sentences and finds word pictures to illustrate them
3. uses a vocabulary notebook to increase word knowledge

## EVALUATION

The first year evaluation of the ABC Project was designed to ascertain whether there were significant differences in the oral language patterns of children of migrant workers who have been exposed to a program of basic communication development during the 1968-69 school year. These children were screened from the general school population because they possessed limited self confidence and ability to express themselves. Teacher judgement and the Classroom Reading Inventory were used to initially refer these students to the ABC Project.

The study was designed to ascertain whether there were significant differences in the number of words and the thought concepts presented by a randomly selected sample of 29 students (approximately 37%) who were exposed to the basic communication project during the school year. Each child in the sample was brought singly into a room that was a familiar part of his school environment and was seated at the table with the interviewer. A series of five pictures was shown to each subject and the interviewer explained that he wanted the subject to tell him a story about what was in each of the pictures. A microphone was placed inconspicuously near the subject and the subject's language patterns were recorded and transcribed for each picture. The same interviewer, pictures and picture sequences were used for both the pre and post test.

Results were recorded in terms of number of words used by each subject and the number of thought concepts presented. A thought concept was defined as the subject's ability to communicate a concrete idea which was stimulated by looking at each of the five pictures which were presented by the interviewer. The interviewer gave no clues on either the pre or the post test, but on both occasions encouraged the subjects to talk by statements such as "Tell me more." The interviewer stopped when it was obvious that the migrant child could no longer respond to the visual stimulus of the picture which was presented.

**Table I**

Oral Language Patterns and Thought Concepts of Migrant Children in the ABC Project

| | A - Statistic |
|---|---|
| Number of Words Spoken | 0.18 * |
| Number of Concepts Presented | 0.08** |

N = 29 * Significant at the .02 level
** Significant at the .001 level

Significance of change in the migrant child's pre and post oral language performance was measured by the A - Statistic.[1] Results indicate a significant difference in both the oral language patterns and the concept formation of the sample selected from the ABC Project. The aspect of self confidence and self respect, which was an integral part of the program was not statistically analyzed. However, the ABC teachers reported a decrease in discipline problems after the second month of the Project. The migrant children in the program seemed to adjust quickly to the freedom to communicate their ideas and pursue knowledge on their own with the teacher's guidance.

The ABC Project is in its infancy. Additional refinement, more organized units of instruction, better behavioral objectives for each of the four levels, better screening of students, additional in-service training of the teachers are all priorities for next year's program. But the need for the migrant child to acquire facility in Standard English and build his own self concept is much greater than all the obstacles that are encountered in initiating change.

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[1] McGuigan, F.J., Experimental Psychology. (Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1968). Pgs. 176-177.

# A TITLE I ESEA CASE STUDY: THE BILINGUAL PROGRAM TUCUMCARI, NEW MEXICO

*(ED084058)*

U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare
Office of Education
1972

## GENERAL INFORMATION

### Identification Data

- State and district - New Mexico, Tucumcari Public Schools
- Type of program - Bilingual education
- Grade levels - Pre-first, first, second
- Number of schools served - One
- Cost per pupil - $377
- Date when program began - 1969-70

### Description of School District

Tucumcari is the county seat of Quay County, New Mexico. The economy of Tucumcari is based principally on ranching, agriculture, railroading, and tourism. Two major railroads connect the city with principal markets in the midwest and on the Pacific coast. In addition, two national and two State highways provide valuable transportation links for trucking and tourism.

The population of Tucumcari is abut 9,000 people, mostly shopkeepers, mall businessmen, and farmers and their families. Approximately 46 percent of the population are of Spanish origin, and black families comprise 1 percent.

The public school system includes four elementary schools, one junior high, and one high school for some 2,350 children. Zia Elementary School was chosen as the project site because it had the highest percentage of educationally deprived children in the school district. There is also a branch of Eastern New Mexico University located in Tucumcari. There are no parochial schools in the city. The students are predominantly English-speaking whites, with approximately 43 percent Mexican-American and less than 2 percent black. Table 1 shows the ethnic distribution of children in Tucumcari schools. The average pupil/teacher ratio in the schools is 22.6. Average teacher salaries are: elementary - $6,154; secondary - $6,354. The Superintendent of Schools, Mr. Donald York, is appointed by the elected members of the Board of Education.

**Table 1**
**Number and Percent of Students in Tucumcari Public Schools by Ethnic Background, 1969**

| Schools | Black | | English-Speaking White | | Mexican-American | | Total Students | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % |
| Elementary | | | | | | | | |
| Zia | 26 | 6 | 64 | 16 | 315 | 78 | 405 | 100 |
| Buena Vista | 2 | 1 | 145 | 92 | 11 | 7 | 158 | 100 |
| Mountain View | - | - | 259 | 86 | 43 | 14 | 302 | 100 |
| Granger | - | - | 182 | 51 | 173 | 49 | 355 | 100 |
| Total Elementary | 28 | 2 | 650 | 53 | 542 | 45 | 1,220 | 100 |
| Junior High | 2 | | 303 | 56 | 240 | 44 | 545 | 100 |
| High School | 4 | 1 | 289 | 63 | 166 | 36 | 459 | 100 |
| Total Tucumcari School System | 34 | 1 | 1,242 | 56 | 948 | 43 | 2,224 | 100 |

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### Capsule Description of Program

The bilingual program in the Zia Elementary School is an attempt to improve the educational opportunity and the overall school experience of approximately 162 educationally deprived children. The program seeks to:

- Develop literacy skills in both the mother tongue and the second language;
- Provide bilingual instruction in social studies and cultural enrichment;
- Assist the development of positive self-image and cultural identity.

A bilingual staff, currently consisting of three teachers and four aides, provides instructional activities during daily visits to all regular classrooms in grades one through three. Children are grouped according to ability for half-hour sessions in reading, in both Spanish and English, during the morning hours. In the afternoon, the bilingual teachers return to the regular classroom to provide a one-hour instruction period, in Spanish, in social studies and cultural enrichment. Parents of the children sponsor additional special activities and presentations to reinforce the cultural identity and self-image of the Spanish-speaking children.

Tucumcari, like several other school districts in the Southwest, had organized special pre-first grade classes for all children entering school. Under this arrangement, a child could progress directly from pre-first to second grade if his English-speaking ability and academic achievement warranted the jump. If, however, he was having difficulties with English, then he progressed to first grade.

The bilingual program began in one pre-first grade classroom in September 1969 and has since expanded to include all classrooms through grade two and one third-grade class. The pre-first grade concept has now been eliminated district-wide. Plans for the program include eventual expansion up to grade six and horizontal expansion into other Title I schools in Tucumcari.

Primary emphasis of the first year of operation was on the evaluation, translation, and acquisition of suitable instructional materials in Spanish and English. In the second year, this effort continued with added emphasis on the development of audiovisual aids and lesson plans for teaching language arts and other parts of the curriculum in two languages.

The program is funded by Title I ESEA as a supplement to the regular school program in Tucumcari.

## PLANNING THE PROGRAM

### Determining Pupil Needs

The main emphasis of the Title I program in Tucumcari in the first two years of its operation was on remedial reading. In school year 1967-68, Mr. Don Herron was hired as the elementary school counselor for the Title I program. Results of the testing program conducted by Mr. Herron that year had some disturbing implications. Despite the Title I program, evaluations in the spring of 1968 showed that participants made no appreciable scholastic gains. Also, the testing indicated that the children from Spanish-speaking homes in the Title I schools were being labeled slow learners without the native intelligence necessary to achieve on a normal level.

Largely at the instigation of Mr. Herron and other concerned community and school people, the Title I Advisory Committee began a study in 1968-69 to ascertain in greater detail the educational needs of the Title I children and to find a more effective approach to meet those needs.

The study began with an extensive evaluation of the remedial reading program. The committee, through its various sources and contacts, decided that the resources and efforts of the Title I program could be better utilized in another area. This decision was based on several factors:

- A persistent high dropout rate among the Spanish-speaking children in the district;
- Poor school attitudes as observed by teachers;
- A retention rate of 34 percent in all first-grade classes in the 1968-69 school year;
- The results of the testing program for participants in the reading activity; and
- Additional testing of Spanish-speaking children to determine their level of achievement in English-language skills.

The decision of the Advisory Committee led to the establishment of a planning group composed of the Superintendent of schools, the Assistant Superintendent, the principal of Zia Elementary School, a junior high school Spanish teacher, a high school Spanish teacher, and Mr. Herron.

The group held its first meeting in March 1969 to consider an alternative approach to the education of linguistically and culturally diverse children. Plans were discussed with members of the school faculties in Tucumcari, and the group decided that a bilingual/bicultural program should be started at the lower elementary level.

As planned, the program would begin in only one pre-first grade classroom the first year. If the program evidenced success, it would be expanded both horizontally and vertically during successive years. This decision was based on the experimental nature of the program, the amount of funds available to the staff, and a cautious attitude on the part of the community as to the probable success of the program.

The emphasis and the approach would, it was felt, obviate the need for remedial work later in the child's school experience. The pupils who were to participate in the first year's operation were located in the Zia Elementary School. The attendance area had the highest concentration of low-income children from Spanish-speaking homes. Participants in the first year were Title I eligible children whose parents, after consultation, had voluntarily enrolled them in the class.

The new program was advertised over the radio and in the newspaper. Parents were asked to bring their children to enroll in the special class. None came during the opening days of school. Therefore, Mr. Herron and Miss Rose Gonzales (a bilingual Spanish teacher hired as a consultant) started at the top of the pre-enrollment list and visited the homes of the first 25 Spanish surnamed children to explain the basic concepts of the program to the parents. All the parents voluntarily enrolled their children in the class. The primary reasons for the earlier lack of response were a general mistrust and fear of the school and misunderstanding about the serious intent to carry out the new program. After the home visits, the parents became very enthusiastic about the program and offered to help in any way.

### Involving Parents and Community

There was no input from the parents of the children in the needs assessment process before the program began. This situation changed, however, during the first year of operation, and all parents were consulted at the start concerning the needs of their children. Proposed changes in the program are now discussed not only with the parent advisory council but also with individual parents of children in the program.

In September 1969, parents of the children in the first bilingual class were asked to form a parent council to help guide the program and to assist in its operation. In school year 1970-71, a nominating committee suggested new members for the parent council. The council included seven parents, each with at least one child in the program, plus the principal and members of the bilingual program staff. The council met about once a month.

### Establishing Specific Objectives

The planning group established the objectives for the first year of the program. Immediate objectives were to:

- Begin a program of bilingual/bicultural education in a pre-first grade at the Zia Elementary School;
- Involve parents, teachers, administrators, and others from the State Department of Education in the planning of the project;
- Give major emphasis during the first year to developing and locating materials for the program;
- Lay the groundwork for effective community involvement.

During the process of establishing specific instructional objectives, the group was greatly influenced by a speech delivered by Dr. Henry Pascual, a specialist in communicative arts for the New Mexico State Department of Education. This was disseminated to school personnel through the State. The speech emphasized three basic areas of concern to educators of potentially bilingual children; developing the self-image of the child, supporting cultural identity, and preventing educational retardation.

Performance objectives which evolved from these and other ideas were as follows:

- The first graders will learn about the Mexican and American cultures through games, art, stories, songs, food, and participation in other special activities.
- The class will demonstrate a better command of both Spanish and English languages upon entrance into the second grade.
- The first graders will have a positive attitude toward school as measured by their participation in activities recorded and observed by the teachers involved.
- The class will display a more positive self-image than a comparable control group as measured by recorded teacher observations.

Objectives for the second year of operation were essentially the same as for the first year. During the first year, the staff concentrated on problems related to scheduling, vertical expansion, and the continuing need to evaluate and adapt high quality materials for the program. However, they soon realized that tighter performance objectives were needed and sought advice from the Education Department of Eastern New Mexico University which has a branch at Tucumcari.

**Identifying and Using Resources**

The planning group recognized from the beginning that they had little knowledge of the steps involved in beginning a bilingual program. They were aware that the first year would necessarily be developmental and that the structure of the program would have to be flexible in order to allow for change as experience and expertise were acquired.

The first planning task undertaken was a review of existing resources in the school district and the State of New Mexico. Dr. Pascual provided excellent assistance and counsel in this review. Another source of State leadership was the Title I staff under the direction of Mr. Donald Harvey. Members of the planning group attended seminars at the Cultural Awareness Center, University of New Mexico. In addition, existing bilingual education programs in Dexter, Artesia, Las Vegas, and Silver City, New Mexico, were visited by Mr. Herron and Miss Gonzales to gain insight into program design, administration, materials, and special problems in implementing such a program.

The program staff maintained close coordination with Dr. Pascual in the second year of operation in order to obtain current information regarding new developments in research, materials, and techniques related to bilingual/bicultural education.

## MANAGING THE PROGRAM

**Selecting Staff**

The scope of the first-year program in 1969-70 and the amount of funds available limited the size of the staff. The planning group decided that one bilingual consultant and one school aide were essential. The program staff would work in close cooperation with regular school personnel and with parents of the children to maximize resources for the program.

The selection of the bilingual consultant was a key decision for the Superintendent and the Title I Advisory Committee. They felt that in a small program with limited staff, the responsibilities placed on each person would be demanding and require an unusually high degree of dedication, tact, enthusiasm, and understanding as well as the expected technical expertise for conducting such an activity. Other requirements for the position were a B.A. degree, fluency in English and Spanish, and teaching experience.

Miss Rose Gonzales was hired in August 1969 as the bilingual consultant. She was chosen because she was a longtime resident of Tucumcari and, therefore, familiar with the needs of local children. She also had indicated an early interest in and dedication to the program.

The selection of the bilingual school aide was a joint decision of the Title I coordinator, the bilingual consultant, and the Superintendent. All applications were interviewed by these individuals following submission of a standard application form. The availability of the aid position was advertised in the local newspaper, over the radio, and through various contacts in the schools. Requirements for the position were:

- High school diploma or equivalent
- Age 18 or over
- U.S. citizenship or evidence that it is being sought
- Fluency in English and Spanish
- High moral character
- Teaching ability

A total of 25 persons applied for the position. Mrs. Mary Alarcon was selected in August 1969.

It shortly became evident that additional assistance was needed in the bilingual class. A Title I instructional aide, Miss Betty Dabau, had expressed interest in the new program and readily agreed to be transferred into the bilingual class. In August 1970, an additional aide, Miss Barbara Domingos, was hired from approximately 10 to 12 applicants from the community.

By midterm of the second year of operation, the program had been expanded to include two pre-first, one first, and one second grade classes. This increased the number of students to 100, and an additional bilingual teacher was hired to assist Miss Gonzales. Three applicants for the position were interviewed; Mr. Philip Sandoval was selected. Mr. Sandoval had completed practice teaching in Tucumcari and had previously expressed tremendous interest in the program and the concept of bilingual education.

During the summer of 1971, reallocation of Title I funds in New Mexico provided the opportunity to hire a third teacher for the program. Five persons, all Spanish-surnamed, applied for the position. Mrs. Rose Anaya, who had teaching experience in another bilingual project in the State, was hired. One of the major problems faced by the program was the difficulty in attracting additional applicants for positions, perhaps due to the size and location of the city. To handle this situation, Tucumcari began to rely more heavily on local resources, focusing primarily on improving the capabilities of local people. Current plans for a degree program for school aides at Eastern New Mexico University are an example of this.

## Selecting and Preparing Facilities

Initially, a 30-minute time block in the regular school day was designated for instruction in Spanish. The bilingual teacher and teacher aides went into the regular classroom to present the program to the children. This pattern proved ineffective for several reasons:

- Entire class instruction did not allow enough time for attending the individual needs of each child.
- Instruction had to be planned so that all children were able to participate regardless of their differing abilities in Spanish.
- The bilingual teacher and the teacher aides were often in different rooms and were not able to observe and criticize each other's techniques.
- The regular classroom teacher was not utilized effectively during this time.

In order to remedy this situation and to provide for linguistic ability grouping, the program staff decided to experiment with a different logistical arrangement in the second year. A large room in the school was selected for the bilingual learning center. Here, small groups of children could come for short instructional periods. A Spanish learning environment was created in the room with many visuals and teaching devices, such as illustrations of story lines and songs, pocket charts, sentence strips, and reading charts. The room was divided into two sections for small-group instruction.

In the beginning of the third year of operation, the bilingual program moved back into the regular classroom. While there were many logistical advantages to having a separate room for the program, the staff felt that other considerations outweighed these advantages. Specific disadvantages of the special room arrangement were:

- Coordination between the activities in the regular classroom and the special room was hampered because daily interaction between the teachers was lacking.
- An artificial separation between the Spanish and English activities developed, especially in the area of cultural enrichment.
- With additional classes, the space in the special room was inadequate.
- Excessive displacement of children occurred, resulting in loss of instruction time.

## Organizing and Scheduling Participants

During 1970-71, children were placed in groups of 10 to 15, based upon individual needs as determined by the regular classroom teacher and the particular level and subject matter being presented in the special room at a given time. If a child exhibited need for additional help in more than one area, he could be scheduled for more than one group session per day.

Within each group, the bilingual staff further divided the students according to needs and the amount of individual attention required. The schedules for teachers and aides were sufficiently flexible so that they could work with the entire group, subgroups, or individual children. Activities in the regular classroom were scheduled so that the children did not miss any of the regular instructional program.

At the end of the year, the bilingual staff agreed that they needed more coordination with the regular classroom teacher and less separation of Spanish and English activities. To accomplish this, they decided to offer the bilingual program in the regular classrooms, making it an integral part of the instruction given all children, not just the children from Spanish-speaking homes.

Under the present arrangement, the three bilingual teachers and four aides go into each regular classroom for approximately one hour in the morning and one hour in the afternoon. In the morning, the bilingual teacher works with approximately half of the class reading Spanish, and the regular teacher works with the remaining children reading English. Children are subgrouped according to special problem areas and ability in each language. The aides conduct special activities with small groups or individual children. Each reading session lasts 30 minutes. Then the bilingual teacher and the regular teacher exchange groups for reading in the other language. Reading activities occur in the two first grades and one second grade.

In the afternoon, the bilingual teachers provide one full hour of instruction in social studies and cultural enrichment to all first grade and second grade classes and to one third grade classroom. This instruction is delivered totally in Spanish. The regular teacher is in the classroom to provide reinforcement and to demonstrate an interest in the language and culture of the children from Spanish-speaking homes while also serving as a model for the other children in the room. Aides work with individual children whose command of Spanish does not allow them to participate fully in the main activities in the room. Also, in the afternoon, two of the bilingual teachers go to two other Title I schools and teach Spanish language arts and culture to two first grade classes for approximately 45 minutes. An aide is assigned to each teacher for these activities.

### Developing Curriculum

In the beginning months of the program, considerable staff effort was directed towards adapting, translating, and evaluating various published curriculum materials, poetry, folk tales, and existing curriculum guides. After two years of operation, a basic set of materials and lesson plans has been established. The two bilingual teachers continually evaluate new materials for possible use. Bibliographies, constructed from visits to other bilingual education projects, are periodically reviewed and a copy of selected materials is obtained. The text is reviewed in detail, and experimental lesson plans are constructed and used in the classroom.

Considering the limits of time, space, and funds, the program staff realized that for bilingual education to become a significant factor in the educational development of the children in Tucumcari, the most relevant aspects of the curriculum should be chosen for bilingual presentation or solely through the dominant language of each child. This realization was based on the concept that the function of any school is to provide conceptual growth for *each* child. Such growth should take place through the language which is most familiar to the child and which can be used most effectively as a learning vehicle. Coordination with instruction in the regular classroom is required so that concepts learned in one language are reinforced in the other. Consequently, literacy skills and social studies concepts were chosen as the core of the bilingual activity.

The decision to teach literacy skills in the program was based on the premise that if one can read and write his native language, the way is paved for further intellectual development. In addition, it was felt that once the skills of reading were learned, there would be a positive transfer into English reading skills.

Although the program emphasized the acquisition of literacy skills in both English and Spanish, staff members were also concerned with the content of the materials used to teach such skills. They agreed that the time-tested content of international folk tales would be an excellent starting point for reading in Spanish. However, the teachers found the vocabulary of the folk tales already published in Spanish too complicated and thus translated their own versions of such favorites as Little Red Riding Hood, The Three Bears, and Snow White.

In addition to improving reading skills, staff members hoped the children would expand their total language experiences. This was accomplished through listening as the staff read culturally-based stories, preparing personal experience charts similar to those in the *Learning Experiences in Reading* program by Van Allen, and participating in culturally relevant games, learning poems, and singing songs suited to the age level of the children.

While the children were developing language skills in Spanish, they were reinforcing those skills in English in the regular classroom. Regular teachers used Miami Linguistic Readers, and the children learned songs and games in English.

In presenting the social studies activities, the staff worked with children not only through their language but also through their world. A child interprets reality from a personal point of view and thinks that everyone else sees the world as he does. Therefore, the immediate environment of the school and home comprises the initial social studies content so that the child can begin to relate through himself to others. The social studies concepts incorporated in the curriculum were designed to stimulate the child's awareness of:

- Himself in time and space;
- His name and its importance in his culture in contrast with other cultures;
- His schoolmates;
- His family in contrast with other families; and
- His living habits (foods, health, church, and community life).

Basic elements of mathematics and associated terminology were also presented in Spanish to reinforce the math instruction in the regular classroom. Teachers used manipulative devices, including clocks, coins, and like and unlike objects, to explain the concepts of addition, subtraction, counting, and application of numbers as they relate to time and handling money. Follow-up activities using abstract numbers were then employed.

## IMPLEMENTING THE PROGRAM

### Training the Staff

Inservice training of the staff occurred in both formal and informal ways. Prior to the first year of operation, the Title I director and the bilingual consultant held a preschool workshop. The participants included seven teachers and eleven aides. Training was given in methods of teaching the bilingual child, the use of audiovisual equipment, orientation to school law, and the duties of teacher aides.

During the school year, the bilingual program staff met weekly with the regular classroom teachers to discuss problems of individual children and to obtain the teachers' opinions of the special program.

Aids in the program received considerable on-the-job training. The bilingual consultant observed their activities each week and reviewed techniques, offered suggestions, and requested changes at a weekly staff meeting.

Tentative plans for the inservice program in 1971-72 were developed by the bilingual consultant. These included workshops for six classroom teachers, three aides, two bilingual teachers, and the Zia School principal. The following subjects were covered:

- **Community Involvement** - To be conducted by the bilingual consultant; covering the concepts of the importance of parental interest in school for both teacher and students and methods used to attract parents to become involved int he bilingual program.

- **Cultural Differences** - To be conducted by program staff members; based on a model workshop from the Culture Awareness Center, Albuquerque, NM, to stimulate teachers to become aware of and sensitive to cultural differences in children and to use cultural differences to enhance teaching materials.

- **Miami Linguistic Series** - To be conducted by a representative of the publishing company; to instruct teachers in the use of the method and to stimulate bilingual aides to use some of the methodology in teaching the children to read Spanish.

- **Man and His Social Actions** - Conducted by bilingual teachers; to train regular teachers and aides in elements of conceptual development and contents of the social studies curriculum for the program.

### Staff Duties

Each staff member was assigned specific tasks during the teaching periods. These tasks included:

#### Teachers

- Reading instruction in Spanish
- Conducting writing practice based on story line of the reading activity
- Individual tutoring for:
  - Language development of non-Spanish speakers
  - Muscular development through writing
  - Phonetic discrimination drills in English for Spanish speakers
  - Other English-as-a-second-language needs

#### Aides

- Reading reinforcement activities using cards and sentence strips
- Reading reinforcement activities using cards and sentence strips
- Leading group singing

### Conducting Instruction

In working with the children, the teachers and aides prepared colorful visuals to illustrate story lines and then presented segments of the story orally with selected vocabulary words. An attempt was made to match pre-reading instructional activities developed in regular reading readiness with the Spanish reading program. Reading skills, such as comprehension, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation, normally taught as part of English language arts, were now presented in the native tongue as well.

Miss Gonzales prepared regular weekly lesson plans which the entire staff reviewed on Friday mornings. On Friday afternoons, the aides developed supplementary materials and visuals and their own individual lesson plans for the coming week.

A partial list of materials in use thus far includes:

- Kenworthy's Laguna Language Series

- Filmstrips:
  - Caperucita Roja (Little Red Riding Hood)
  - Los Tres Osos (The Three Bears)
  - Los Quatro Cantantes de Guadalajara (The Four Singers of Guadalajara)
  - El Flautista de Jamlin (The Pied Piper)
  - If You Were Born in Mexico
  - Men in Blue, Policemen in Action
  - I Beg Your Pardon

- Records:
  - Ninos Dejad que os Cuente un Cuento (Children, Let Me Tell You a Story)
  - Canciones de Navidad (Songs of Christmas)
  - Cantos de los Posadas (Yuletide Chants)
  - Paso a Pasy (Poesia y prosa para niños) (Step by Step, Poetry and Prose for Children)
  - Rancheras de Nuevo Mexico (Ballads of New Mexico) Vamos a Cantar (Let's Sing)

- Books:
  - Nuestros Amigos (Our Friends)
  - A Bilingual Oral Language and Conceptual Development Program for Spanish-Speaking Pre-School Children
  - Learning English as a Second Language (Flash cards included)

- Visual Aids:
  - Cubical counting blocks
  - Flannel board with magnetic back
  - Velour board sheets
  - Felt sheets
  - Felt cutouts
  - Magnetic enlarged coins
  - Magnetic numbers
  - Beaded clock
  - Calendars

- Translated Stories:
  - The Ugly Duckling (El Patito Feito)
  - Telltime Goes A'Counting (Telltime Va Contando)
  - The Brave Little Indian (El Indito Valiente)
  - If You Were Born in Mexico (Si Habieses Nacido en Mexico)
  - I Beg Your Pardon (Con Permiso)
  - Jack and Jill (Joaquin y Juanita)
  - Baa Baa Black Sheet (Ba Ba Borrega Negra)

### Involving Parents and Community

Parents of children participating in the program volunteered their time and services for special activities. Some parents made personal presentations on various aspects of Mexican-American culture through story-telling, games, art, and demonstrations. Among the parental sessions were demonstrations on how to make flour tortillas, abodes, sopapillas, and toys out of boxes; the presentation of various Mexican songs; and telling Spanish stories. Parents also made costumes for class plays and food and piñatas for parties.

In addition to these special activities, teacher-parent meetings are held each month to help develop new ideas for the program and to discuss its progress.

When the bilingual class first started, parents were asked not to come and observe for a few days to allow time for the children to adjust to the new activity. Thereafter, a schedule was arranged to insure that during each school day, two parents would be in the classroom observing the program. This activity maintained the interest of the parents and strengthened home/school relationships for all involved.

There were other special events which served to stimulate interest in the program and involvement of the larger community:

- The children in the bilingual class in 1969-70 constructed a float for the piñata festival parade in Tucumcari. The class rode on the float in the parade and won first price in the competition.

- The class celebrated "Las Posadas," a Mexican Christmas tradition commemorating the journey of Mary and Joseph to Bethlehem and their nightly search for lodging. The celebration, which lasted several days, involved many families in the community. Each night the children went to a different house, singing carols and asking lodging. The owner of the house welcòmed the group, and there was singing, refreshments, and the breaking of a piñata.

### Disseminating Information

Each year and evaluation summary of the project was put into booklet form for all interested members in the community. The booklet contained test results, information pieces on the rationale and structure of the program, recognition of parents and other persons who contributed to the program, a collection of all newspaper items about the program, and other pertinent information about bilingual/bicultural education.

In addition to the booklet, reports were given periodically over the radio and in the newspapers. The parent council and individual parents met regularly to review the progress of the program.

In 1970-71, a film about the program was prepared, and it is available to the community and other interested parties.

## BUDGET

The detailed budget for the bilingual activity for fiscal year 1972 was:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Salaries for professional personnel | | |
| Position title: | Est. no. | |
| Bilingual teacher | 2 | $12,800 |
| Bilingual consultant | 1 | 7,326 |
| Guidance counselor/director | 1/2 | 7,891 |
| | Subtotal | $28,017 |
| Salaries for non-professional personnel | | |
| Position Title: | Est. no. | |
| School aides | 4 | 8,370 |
| Secretary | 1/2 | 2,133 |
| | Subtotal | 10,503 |
| Supplementary school aides | | $10,546 |
| Proposed travel for instruction | | 250 |
| Guidance and testing | | 250 |
| Other instructional expenses | | |
| Textbooks | | 1,000 |
| Classroom supplies and materials | | 1,390 |
| Audiovisual materials | | 100 |
| | Subtotal | $2,490 |
| Employee benefits | | |
| Social Security | | 2,858 |
| Educational Retirement Act | | 2,896 |
| Health/accident insurance (optional) | | 190 |
| | Subtotal | $ 5,944 |
| | Total | $58,000 |

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# EVALUATION

Evaluation of the program in the first two years of operation relied heavily on teacher and parent observation, questionnaires, checklists, surveys, and locally developed tests. Some standardized testing was conducted in English and Spanish largely for comparative purposes to justify the activity and gain maximum community support. The evaluation design for the 1971-72 school year included pre-testing and post-testing of participants, using achievement measures such as the California Test of Basic Skills and the Peabody Picture Test in English and Spanish.

The various components of the testing program completed by fall 1970 and the resulting data are presented in Tables 2 and 3.

**Table 2**

**Comparative Test Results of the Bilingual Class, Zia Elementary School, Tucumcari, 1969-70**

| Student's Number | Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Score (IQ) Traditional English, 9/69 | SRA Short Test of Ed. Ability Score (IQ) in Spanish, 9/69 | Peabody Picture Vocabulary (Individual Test) Score in Spanish, 1/70 |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 108 | 130 | 110 |
| 2 | 83 | 67 | 91 |
| 3 | 75 | 93 | moved |
| 4 | 75 | 92 | 89 |
| 5 | 66 | absent | 103 |
| 6 | 89 | 111 | 105 |
| 7 | 82 | 88 | 80 |
| 8 | 86 | 85 | 99 |
| 9 | 90 | 105 | 100 |
| 10 | 93 | 113 | 109 |
| 11 | 63 | 76 | 77 |
| 12 | 61 | 89 | 77 |
| 13 | 68 | 84 | moved |
| 14 | 73 | 114 | 110 |
| 15 | 87 | 85 | 120 |
| 16 | 86 | 95 | 127 |
| 17 | 72 | 98 | 91 |
| 18 | 78 | 101 | 103 |
| 19 | 57 | 100 | 100 |
| 20 | 81 | 106 | 91 |
| 21 | 72 | 98 | 96 |
| 22 | 87 | 97 | 90 |
| 23 | 90 | 99 | 137 |
| 24 | 69 | 92 | 95 |
| 25 | 67 | 86 | 82 |

NOTE: Comparison of test scores: At the beginning of the school year the bilingual class was tested in the traditional testing pattern for all beginning 1st-grade students. The first list of scores shows results of this testing. The list of scores to the right is from the tests given in both Spanish and English.

These are the test results of students who were with the program from the very beginning. Three new students were added and two dropped.

## Table 3

### Reading Readiness Test Results for the Bilingual Class, Zia Elementary School Tucumcari, 1969-70

| Student's Number | Metropolitan Reading Readiness Percentile Score, 9/69 | Peabody Picture Vocabulary (Individual Test) Score in Spanish, 1/70 |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | 71 | 110 |
| 2 | 1 | 90 |
| 3 | absent | moved |
| 4 | 1 | 88 |
| 5 | 4 | 103 |
| 6 | 14 | 105 |
| 7 | 4 | 80 |
| 8 | 1 | 99 |
| 9 | 20 | 100 |
| 10 | 55 | 108 |
| 11 | 13 | 77 |
| 12 | 2 | 90 |
| 13 | 11 | moved |
| 14 | 22 | 110 |
| 15 | 11 | 120 |
| 16 | 40 | 127 |
| 17 | 61 | 90 |
| 18 | 1 | 103 |
| 19 | 2 | 100 |
| 20 | 8 | 90 |
| 21 | 14 | 95 |
| 22 | 23 | 90 |
| 23 | 26 | 137 |
| 24 | 3 | 95 |
| 25 | 4 | 81 |

NOTE: Metropolitan Reading Readiness Test: This test was administered to all children entering the 1st grade in the Tucumcari schools. The test, among other things, was used to determine a child's readiness for language and resulted in placement and grouping for these beginners. This test was administered to the group in English. Any students who score below the 30 percentile are, according to the test manual, likely to have difficulty in 1st-grade work and should be assigned to a slow section and given more individualized help. If the readiness score is used as a guide, 20 of the above students would be considered slow learners. On the other hand, the Peabody test indicates three might be classified as slow learners.

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The tests used in the program were:

- Otis-Lennon Mental Ability (English)
- SRA Short Test of Educational Ability (Spanish)
- Metropolitan Reading Readiness Test (English)
- Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (English for English dominant/Spanish for Spanish dominant)

The first three tests were administered to the students as a group. The Peabody test was given individually.

The objectives of the 1970-71 program were measured by the following means:

1. An adaptation of the rating scales that accompany the Bessell-Palomares Materials, Methods in Human Development (Human Development Training Institute, San Diego, California, 1967) was used to measure the development of positive self-image and cultural identity.
2. To check each child's attitude, parents were asked to answer a locally developed questionnaire. This same questionnaire provided data on the accomplishment of the cultural identity objective.
3. Locally developed tests and teacher observations provide the bulk of data for measuring cultural identity.
4. Greater command of the English and Spanish languages was assessed by post-testing with the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test for English and a locally developed test for Spanish.

Other positive indicators that the program has had significant impact were:

1. The number of children who progressed form pre-first grade directly into second grade increased markedly. In 1968-69 the 1st-grade retention rate for the district was 36 percent. After 1 year the percentage dropped to about 16 percent.
2. As a result of the decreased retention, all first grades were eliminated except for one class of eight children. School officials were optimistic that this class could also be eliminated.
3. Absenteeism and vandalism to school property were reduced sharply.
4. Parental involvement and interest in the total school program increased markedly.

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# ASIAN NEWCOMER PARENT PROGRAM

*(ED103705)*

SECOND YEAR REPORT
July 1, 1972 to June 30, 1973

ASIAN NEWCOMER PARENT PROGRAM
sponsored by the Education Center for Chinese
2 Waverly Place
San Francisco, CA 94133
(415) 986-3570
1973

The Asian Newcomer Parent Program was funded as an Adult Basic Education demonstration project. Its two main functions are to develop curriculum and materials and to establish a model English language and community orientation program for newly-arrived Asian immigrants. ANPP is funded through a grant from the Adult Education Act (Section 309(b) Title III, P.L., 91-230), and administered by the Education Center for the Chinese. This program operating in conjunction with a separate but related newcomer program for elementary school children (Chinese Education Center) provides opportunity for Asian immigrant families to learn English while becoming familiar with the services and resources of the community.

A two cycle Mini-Unit format was chosen to accommodate the continual influx of new immigrants seeking English instruction. The structural content of the Cycle I Mini-Units consists of very basic English structures. These structures are presented in sequence, 10 consecutive times (once in each of the 10 Mini-Units). Each Mini-Unit lasts approximately 10 hours. The structures introduced in Cycle I are expanded and other more complex grammatical concepts are presented in Cycle II. Cycle II contrasts with Cycle I in time duration, structural complexity, information content, and related classroom activities. Each Cycle II Mini-Units lasts 20 hours.

The topics of these Mini-Units deal with the various aspects of community life with which the immigrant must come to grips in order to do more than just survive in his new country. The cultural differences in the treatment of such areas as the shopping and storage of food, applying for a job, parent and school relationships, housing and transportation are the vehicles by which the basic English structures and vocabularies are introduced and practiced.

The Asian Newcomer Parent Program serves as a reception center in cooperation with other agencies and provides services in the following areas:

1. Reception and screening for proper placement in a language program.
2. Initial counseling/referral for family, social, medical, and employment needs
3. Orientation to the community and its resources focusing on the education system
4. English language development programs
5. Articulation with continuing education programs

The following report is the culmination of two years work for the Asian Newcomer Parent Program. The "products" of these two years include a set of curriculum materials for English language teaching (geared to level 100 of the San Francisco Community College District ESL Master Plan) and the establishment of a model basic English/community orientation program for newcomer adults in San Francisco.

In this report we will concentrate on a discussion of the program aspect of the project as the Everyday English curriculum materials (in two volumes) are now available and may be examined separately.

## GOALS AND ACHIEVEMENT

The following were goals established for the Asian Newcomer Parent Program for its second year of operation. The discussion related to the achievement of these goals, some of the problems encountered, how they were resolved, and, finally, some projections for the third year of operation.

## I. TO ACT AS A RECEPTION CENTER FOR ASIAN NEWCOMERS

Screening and Placement. Applicants to the program were interviewed using OE Form 3121-3 plus an ANPP supplementary sheet. They were then tested with the Ilyin Oral Interview (Newbury House). Applicants who tested higher than "O" on the Ilyin test, whose English level was judged too high for ANPP placement, and who already has basic knowledge of community resources were referred to other programs.[1]

Counseling and Referrals. Applicants were counseled on their education needs and referred to other agencies for medical and social help when requested.[2]

The Asian Newcomer Parent Program has developed and demonstrated a successful model for a reception center in the Chinatown North Beach area. For the 329 people who have applied with us this year, we have provided two important initial services:

1. Central intake. A central reception center avoids the waste of energy to both learners and staff. In the regular system, learners go from one program to another trying to find the proper class for themselves.
2. Supportive services. Supportive services including counseling, paraprofessional assistance and clerical help were necessary to a program that really met total needs of learners, and, therefore, maintaining a positive learning environment that led to higher achievement.

Problems and Projections. There has been some misunderstanding among some teachers in the community that the ANPP staff will be administering all ESL classes in Chinatown North Beach. Meetings have been held to allay these apprehensions by explaining that the ANPP has been attempting only to develop and demonstrate a reception center model that the San Francisco Community College District will adopt.

The projection for the third year is to continue demonstrating the reception center model and to actively work with the San Francisco Community College District and the Chinese Advisory Committee to the SFCCD to provide this centralized intake and placement service, first within the Chinatown North Beach area and then, hopefully, to be spread to other communities.

## II. TO CONDUCT A PROGRAM DEMONSTRATING THE ASIAN NEWCOMER PARENT PROGRAM COMMUNITY CENTERED CURRICULUM

New Location. The ANPP offices were moved in November, 1972 to 2 Waverly Place in Chinatown. Two classes were established at the new location, while four classes continued to operate at Hancock School in North Beach.

Language Levels. Each site included a Cycle I and a Cycle II group plus an Introduction group where new learners first learn their personal data in English, get used to classroom procedures, learn how to use the audio-visual equipment, and are introduced to classroom ESL methodologies[3].

Instruction. Classroom lessons were based on the revised Cycle I and Cycle II teacher guides.[4]

The classroom work was augmented by related important activities.

Guest Speakers and Discussions. Guest speakers and/or films were presented on community resources such as the Department of Human Resources Development, the Family Planning Education Project, the Community Mental Health Program, the San Francisco Public Health Services, San Francisco banking services, etc. These discussion meetings were of great value as first hand sources of information.

Field Experiences. Visits to various community resources continued to be an important part of the curriculum.[5]

Again, there was some reluctance at the beginning of the year among some parent learners to participate in field experiences. Some mentioned they were too tired to go (especially night time learners), but those who attended felt field experiences were worthwhile learning experiences. A video tape we made has helped to show our parents (and others) the real learning of English and community information that occurs during a well-planned field experience.

Video Tapes. The video tape mentioned in the previous paragraph was made of a group visiting the Greyhound Bus Station. It shows the group preparing for the trip by going through pre-trip exercises, practicing English during the trip, (with the teacher and Greyhound staff), gaining information on bus travel, and, finally, engaging in post-trip exercises. Tapes like these have helped our learners and staff see the learning possibilities of field experiences, but more important, they have helped to influence other community teachers to consider providing similar field experiences.

The ANPP has made some other successful use of its video tape equipment this year.

1. New participants watched a tape describing the ANPP program particularly the unique Cycle I and Cycle II format.

2. A tape of the ANPP materials, showing presentation of the same structural set as new information in each module has helped us to explain our curricular model.

3. The field experience video tape has also helped to show visitors to the program the idea of using the community as curriculum.

There will be summer workshops conducted by Curtis Choy of the Chinese Media Committee for staff members to improve their skills with the camera, so that the equipment can be utilized even better. The Media Committee has been very cooperative in sharing their production expertise and equipment.

Flash Card Readers. Extra language practice was provided before classes, during the break or after classes with the Flash Card Readers (Electronics Futures, Inc.)

Cassette Tape Recorders. Learners were able to borrow tape recorders and tapes of drills just learned in class for added reinforcement at home.

Cultural and Calendar Events. Observing cultural and calendar events continued to be an expedient way of introducing the new culture.[6] Again, the goals were providing information, interpretation and related language learning activities.

Community Participation. Our parent learners starting to participate in concerns and activities of the community can be another indication of the orientation process. This year our parents were involved in a number of activities that related to their own families and their families' welfare.

Many parents participated in the effort to retain child care services in the community by signing petitions and appearing at two demonstrations. Another concern among our parents was the projected closing of Commodore Stockton School Annex due to earthquake safety factors. Their opposition, along with those of other residents, has helped the school district to revise their plans so that the Annex can be kept for special community programs. And just recently, ANPP parents (on their own initiative) gathered signatures together which helped influence the Community College District to hold summer classes at Hancock School for the first time.

Some Problems. Finding adequate space to hold classes, for office use and, in the past several months, to produce the materials, has been a real problem in this space limited community. There was a threat that we would lose the use of Room 7 at Hancock School because of the school's acquisition of ESEA funds for special programming next year. However, we wanted to maintain a program in the North Beach area[7] because there is a definite need and to prove to the community the benefits of parents, especially newcomers, being in a public school regularly and interacting positively with the staff and children.

Child Care. Pressure from the Board of Education for Chinese has helped ANPP to retain Room 7 for next year, but we are still looking for some place to house our fledgling child care project. It has always been a premise of the ANPP that if we are to serve parents, we must provide child care for mothers who have preschoolers. We have been trying out a program using both mothers and volunteers, but it has been only partly successful because of the lack of space to operate at Hancock School.

The child care situation at the Chinatown location has proven less of a problem. The First Chines Baptist Church across the street from us has a well-equipped nursery and has kindly lent us the space. Our only task was to staff the program. A promising solution next fall is the Community Mental Health Children's Program. It has offered to take care of children whose mothers are attending ESL classes.

Family Education Focus. The ANPP continued to be in close relationship to the Chinese Education Center (CEC), the children's reception center that the ECC helped initiate.

There was an increase in enrollment of CEC parents at ANPP, largely due to our attending CEC parent meetings and our being located in Chinatown. Close liaison was maintained between both staff, with Mr. Michael Kittredge, CEC Director, also acting as our program administrative consultant.

Joint activities included staff meetings together, a workshop on pronunciation problems, and celebrating of cultural events such as Thanksgiving, Christmas, Chinese New Year and Easter.

Claudia Jeung, CEC resource teacher and director of its summer program, will be working with our staff this summer to initiate a cassette tape ESL project that we hope will provide the opportunity for parent and child learning together.

## III. TO PROVIDE ONGOING SUPPORTIVE SERVICES AND ARTICULATION WITH OTHER PROGRAMS

Counseling. The community coordinator and associate professionals were available on a regular basis to the various classes. After good rapport was established with the parents, many of them requested help either after class or at our office.[8]

Referrals. With the moving of Chinese Newcomers Service Center downstairs (a United Bay Area Crusade information and referral service), referrals were often made to them. They in turn sent their ESL or education inquiries to ANPP.

Another indication of ANPP cooperation within the community is the recent publication of a booklet in Chinese on how to use the telephone - a joint venture of ANPP, the Chinese Newcomers Service Center, Chinese for Affirmative Action and the Metropolitan Pacific Telephone Community Relations Team.

Articulation. Contacts were made to all the programs in which we referred people. In locations where there was no administrator in charge, we picked a teacher whom we knew to help expedite proper placement. A form with placement test results and other relevant information was sent with the applicant. Very often, phone calls were made on behalf of the applicant.

Orientation Meetings. Meetings were held early in the school year with the staff and administrators of the Chinatown North Beach English Language Center, Cumberland Adult Classes, Commodore Stockton Evening Adult Classes, Alemany Community College Education, John Adams Center, etc., to acquaint them with the ANPP, our sending referrals to them, and describing our curriculum development program.

## IV. TO PROVIDE PROGRESS EVALUATION OF PARENT LEARNERS AND LEARNERS' ASSESSMENT OF PROGRAM AND MATERIALS

Progress Evaluation. With the change to the new two cycle format, formal testing of learners after each module was disbanded because learners were not expected to master all of the structures of the modules until the end of the cycle. Learners were tested, however, after the completion of Cycle I.[9] This was a three part test that included:

1. A structure test
2. A picture recognition test - for audio discrimination and general comprehension
3. An oral production test - for comprehension and oral production.

Learners at the end of Cycle II were administered the ANPP adapted English-Second-Language Placement Test (EPT) -100-200-300 of the San Francisco Community College District.[10]

Parents Learners' Perception. Aside from frequent feedback sessions with teachers, the community coordinator and associate professionals, more formal evaluations of the program and materials were gathered through:

1. A questionnaire for parents developed by Dr. John Lum and the ANPP staff.[11]
2. A questionnaire for ANPP parents' children to seek correlation between their ANPP experience and improved parent-child relationships.[12]
3. A questionnaire sent to former participants to see if there was continuation of ESL study, improvement of economic situation,[13] and other signs of acculturation or mobility.
4. A questionnaire and discussion meeting with each class to seek ideas and interest for the third year curriculum.[14]

Independent Evaluation. The independent evaluation of the project this year was again under Dr. Lum, who was assisted by Mr. Antonio De Maio and Mr. Phillip Lum.[15]

## VI. TO EXPAND AND REFINE THE CURRICULUM MATERIALS TO THE CYCLE I AND CYCLE II FORMAT

New Materials. During the second program year, the ideas of the first year—a community centered context presented in a limited structural set and a cyclical format—were maintained but realized more systematically and in greater detail through the addition of audio-lingual devices for presenting material. Conversations and short stories have been included to present new material with pattern drills focusing on this material.

Independent Units. The community context modules were refined and developed as ten structurally and lexically independent units for each cycle with no fixed sequence within the cycles. The Personal Data module was shortened from a structurally demanding, 20-hour unit into a much simpler Introduction unit usually requiring no more than ten hours and including only basic personal information such as name, address, phone number.

Material Evaluation. Each context module has been classroom tested, reviewed by the curriculum consultant, rewritten according to this feedback, and duplicated for distribution.

Illustrations. Appropriate illustrations to use as visual aids have been drawn for all the modules by Ms. Elee Mao.

Handouts. Information handouts that parallel the context of the English language materials have been written and translated for all the modules. The handouts provide pertinent detailed information that is too complex for the beginner learner in English.

## VI. TO BEGIN DISSEMINATION OF THE CURRICULUM MATERIALS

The ANPP staff attended many professional and community functions to describe the program and the Everyday English materials. The emphasis was on the flexibility of the curriculum, its ability to accommodate learners entering classes at any time during the year, and its proven teachability.

Programs Adopting ANPP Materials. Other programs that used ANPP materials this year included:

1. Sacramento City Unified School District.[16]
2. The Chinese Bilingual Project (Title VII) parent ESL group - Jane Tom.
3. First Chinese Baptist Church evening classes - Vicky Low Oei.
4. Telegraph Hill Family School - Lily Lim.

Workshops and Meetings. Various workshops and meetings were held to introduce the materials and to find a group of teachers who would test the Cycle I and Cycle II materials again for us next year. Training seminars will be held with them before the fall semester.

1. Modularized Curriculum: One Approach To The Problem of Continuing Enrollment Through Mini-Units, preconvention workshop led by Johnnie Prather and June Quan at TESOL Convention, San Juan, Puerto Rico, May 1973
2. Meetings with Cumberland Adult ESL staff, January 1973
3. Meeting with First Chinese Baptist ESL staff, February 1973
4. Exchange meetings with the staff at the Chinatown-North Beach English Language Center, November 1972
5. Meeting with Level 100-200 teachers at Alemany Community College District Headquarters to discuss modularized curriculum, May 1973
6. Meeting with city-wide ESL teachers at Community College District headquarters to discuss modularized curriculum, May 1973
7. Meeting with Chinatown ESL teachers, May 1973
8. Presentation of the ANPP to the National Bilingual Leadership Training Institute at the Hilton Inn, San Francisco Airport, February 1973
9. Presentation of ANPP at Far West Laboratory workshop on ABE at the Jack Tar Hotel, June 1973

Materials Display. Samples of our materials have been displayed and distributed.

1. CATESOL Conference, April 1973, San Diego, CA
2. First International Multilingual-Multicultural Conference, April 1973, San Diego, CA
3. Holy Name College meeting of ESL teachers
4. Right to Read exhibit, Commodore Sloat School
5. Sample packet for English Language Center (DHEW/ABE), Chinatown Planning Council, New York City
6. Sample packet of materials to participants of TESOL preconvention workshop
7. Sample packet for Mao Chung Nien, Commissioner of Overseas Chinese Affairs of the Republic of China

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Publications. The ANPP was mentioned in the following publications this year.

1. Issues, Far West Laboratory ABE staff development project newsletter, May/June 1973
2. CATESOL newsletter, September 1973
3. School News, S.F. Unified School District Office of Desegregation and Integration newsletter, December 1972
4. EAST-WEST, Chinese-English Weekly, April 1973
5. Chinese Times - daily, September 1972, February 1973, April 1973

Visits to Project. Numerous groups and individuals have visited the project during the year. They have included such diverse groups as Vista Volunteers, California State University TESOL graduate students, Chinese-Americans Respond to Employment and Services (CARES) and the Metropolitan Community Relations Team of Pacific Telephone.

Liaison With Asian ESL Projects. Exchange visits with sister projects were made with the English Language-Center (Susan Hsu) in New York City, the Bridging the Asian Gap (Sadae Iwataki) project in Los Angeles, and the Seattle Model Cities Adult ESL project (Linda Yang).

ANPP has also been in correspondence with Juliana Mark of the Association of Chinese Educators (ACE) of Chicago. Contact with other ESL projects serving Asians has also been made at the Multilingual-Multicultural Conference and at the TESOL Convention.

Television. One of our classes featured in a program on services for newcomers in San Francisco Chinatown on KTVU Channel 2 in September, 1972.

Radio. Staff from both CEC and ANPP were interviewed over KPFA, the local educational station, to discuss the newcomer family education approach.

Limited Copyright. More publicity for the materials developed is needed. At the moment, we have a list of over 300 requests for them. As publicity increases the number of requests, we will need a source of further publication. The ECC is now in the process of applying for a limited copyright so that the staff can pursue the possibility of commercial publication in order to increase distribution of the materials.

## VII. TO WORK OUT PLANS WITH THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE DISTRICT FOR THEIR ABSORPTION OF THE ASIAN NEWCOMER PARENT PROGRAM

The following progress has been made in working out plans with the San Francisco Community College District to absorb the program.

1. Judge Harry W. Low, Chairman of the Education center for Chinese Board has appeared before the Board of Governors of the SFCCD to discuss educational problems in Chinatown and the Asian Newcomer Parent Program.
2. The ECC has had informal meetings with Dr. Louis Batmale, Chancellor of SFCCD.
3. ANPP project director has consulted with Williamn Tresnon, director of Alemany Community College Education Center (administrator of all classes for the Chinese community) concerning the assumption of the administrative cost of the program and establishment of a reception center located in Chinatown.
4. ANPP project director has met with Mr. Laurent Broussal, director of the counseling services for SFCCD and has obtained a commitment for 15 hours/week of counseling time from Karen Ho, counselor.
5. ANPP has commitment of space at Hancock School in North Beach and at First Chinese Baptist Church in Chinatown for the third year of operation.
6. ANPP staff has met with community groups such as the Chinese Advisory Committee to the SFCCD to get support for a reception center in Chinatown.

At the conclusion of the second project year, the staff feels it has successfully achieved the prescribed goals as listed above. The project conducted a basic English/community orientation program for 265 people demonstrating the unique two cycle format and materials developed by the ANPP staff. These materials, developed initially during the first year, have been expanded, tested and refined, and the finished product, Everyday English, in two volumes is ready for dissemination.

Aside from the materials developed, the project has demonstrated to the community some important components necessary to a good adult education program. First, a reception center or some central intake service can save time and energy of both learners and staff. Secondly, supportive services are very necessary because when learners are helped with immediate social and medical needs, they are more ready to concentrate on such tasks as language learning. Thirdly, the limited child care services that ANPP has provided has shown that this is an absolutely essential service if parents are to be served. Child care services which can free parents to learn English and about community resources cannot help but improve the quality of family life, especially the newcomer family.

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1. See appendix - program data.
2. Ibid.
3. See program operation model in appendix.
4. Ibid.
5. See field experience packets in Everyday English, Volume I.
6. See sample cultural event handout in Everyday English, Volume I.
7. North Beach is a neighborhood adjacent to Chinatown proper that is now largely Chinese in population.
8. See appendix - program data.
9. See sample test in appendix.
10. See results and discussion in appendix.
11. See sample questionnaires in appendix.
12. Ibid.
13. Ibid.
14. Ibid.
15. See independent evaluation report in appendix.
16. See attached letter.

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# APPENDICES

## PROGRAM DATA

### SCREENING AND PLACEMENT

329 screened 9/72 - 6/73
265 enrolled 9/72 - 6/73
64 referred to other programs

| | |
|---|---|
| 4 | Alemany Community College Education Center |
| 7 | Chinatown North Beach English Language Center |
| 12 | Cumberland Adult Classes |
| 15 | First Chinese Baptist Church - Evening Classes |
| 2 | Galileo Community College Education Center |
| 17 | Hancock School - Intermediate Class |
| 1 | International Institute |
| 2 | John Adams Community College Education Center |
| 1 | Pacific Heights Community College Education Center |
| 2 | Park Presidio Methodist Adult Classes |
| 1 | Washington Evening Adult Classes |

### CLASS SCHEDULES

| Location | Group | Time | Enrollment 6/73 |
|---|---|---|---|
| Hancock School | I | M - Th 9:30 a.m. - 12 noon | 18 |
| | II | M - Th 9:30 a.m. - 12 noon | 16 |
| | III | M - Th 7:00 p.m. - 9 p.m. | 25 |
| | IV | M - Th 7:00 p.m. - 9 p.m. | 31 |
| 2 Waverly Place | I | M - Th 9:00 a.m. - 11:30 a.m. | 24 |
| | II | M - Th 9:00 a.m. - 11:30 a.m. | 34 |

### REASONS FOR LEAVING

119 left ANPP during school year

| | |
|---|---|
| to intermediate ESL | 17 |
| to other programs | 10 |
| child care problems | 17 |
| change in work schedule | 23 |
| found jobs | 31 |
| health problems | 6 |
| location unsuitable | 6 |
| other reasons | 9 |

# LEARNERS' BACKGROUNDS

91 men participants
174 women participants

## AGE

| | |
|---|---|
| 18 - 20 | 1 |
| 21 - 30 | 46 |
| 31 - 35 | 54 |
| 36 - 40 | 73 |
| 51 - 60 | 75 |
| 61 & over | 16 |

## COUNTRIES OF EMIGRATION

| | |
|---|---|
| Burma | 6 |
| Cuba | 1 |
| Holland | 1 |
| Hong Kong | 232 |
| Japan | 5 |
| Korea | 3 |
| Malaya | 1 |
| South America | 5 |
| Taiwan | 11 |

## LENGTH OF RESIDENCE IN UNITED STATES

| | |
|---|---|
| under 2 mos. | 14 |
| 2 - 6 mos. | 53 |
| 7 - 12 mos. | 50 |
| 1 yr. - 2 yrs. | 53 |
| 2 yrs. - 3 yrs. | 25 |
| 3 yrs. - 5 yrs. | 46 |
| 5 yrs. or more | 24 |

## LANGUAGES AND DIALECTS SPOKEN

| | |
|---|---|
| Burmese | 6 |
| Cantonese | 155 |
| Japanese | 5 |
| Korean | 1 |
| Mandarin | 6 |
| Shanghainese | 3 |
| Toyshanese | 89 |

## EDUCATIONAL LEVELS

| | |
|---|---|
| None | 15 |
| 1 - 3 yrs. | 11 |
| 3 - 5 yrs. | 33 |
| 5 - 7 yrs. | 97 |
| 7 - 9 yrs. | 61 |
| 9 - 12 yrs. | 43 |
| some college | 3 |
| college graduate | 2 |

## PREVIOUS ESL TRAINING

| | |
|---|---|
| None | 166 |
| ESL in U.S. | 60 |
| ESL in native country | 34 |
| MDTA or other | 5 |

## PREVIOUS EMPLOYMENT

| Men | |
|---|---|
| agricultural | 0 |
| industrial | 40 |
| clerical | 34 |
| professional | 12 |
| self employed | 5 |

| Women | |
|---|---|
| agricultural | 3 |
| industrial | 65 |
| clerical | 25 |
| professional | 12 |
| self employed | 4 |
| housewives | 65 |

## PRESENT EMPLOYMENT

| Men | |
|---|---|
| agriculture | 0 |
| industrial | 84 |
| clerical | 0 |
| professional | 1 |
| self employed | 1 |
| unemployed/retired | 5 |

| Women | |
|---|---|
| agriculture | 0 |
| industrial | 83 |
| clerical | 0 |
| professional | 0 |
| self employed | 2 |
| housewives | 89 |

## FAMILY INCOME

| | |
|---|---|
| $2,000 - $3,000 | 2 |
| $3,000 - $4,000 | 26 |
| $4,000 - $5,000 | 65 |
| $5,000 - $6,000 | 56 |
| $6,000 - $7,000 | 26 |
| $7,000 - $8,000 | 13 |
| $8,000 - $9,000 | 8 |
| $8,000 - $10,000 | 4 |
| $10,000 & over | 3 |
| Undeclared | 62 |

## COUNSELING AND REFERRAL

346 requests filled for information and help

## TYPE OF HELP/REFERRAL

| | |
|---|---|
| other ESL classes | 53 |
| other education | 68 |
| employment | 49 |
| housing | 8 |
| immigration | 11 |
| other legal | 39 |
| medical | 29 |
| public assistance | 29 |
| social security | 5 |
| transportation | 18 |
| other | 37 |

# COMMUNICATION EDUCATION AND THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

*(ED168079)*

Stephen Cooper
Louisiana State University
1978

Teaching English as a second language is a significant endeavor in the world. At home, despite the fact that "the height of immigration has long since passed, a large proportion of Americans still have a native language that is other than English. According to the 1970 census, 33.2 million Americans, or roughly 16 percent of the population, speak a language other than English as a native tongue."[1] Realizing that one in six Americans does not speak English as his first language, that speakers of Black English have important language needs, and that recent immigration influxes have demanded new efforts, we can understand why the field of teaching English as a second language (TESL) has developed such a broad and large responsibility.

TESL includes several related areas, such as teaching English as a foreign language, teaching English as a second dialect, and teaching English in bilingual education.[2] The terms for these sub areas vary to reflect programs aimed at different learner needs and goals. In this paper TESL is used as the general heading for such interrelated enterprises.

TESL's role in American education has a brief and recent history. Before World War II such teaching was usually done on an ad hoc basis in the United States to provide for the needs of immigrants. Classes were offered by civic associations, YMCAs, and a few schools and colleges. In 1939 the University of Michigan established its English Language Institute, where linguists such as Charles Fries and Kenneth Pike developed classes in English for Spanish speakers, especially college bound students.[3] Subsequently other colleges developed similar programs. At the same time American educators were increasingly drawn into TESL abroad and by the 1960s millions of people throughout the world were learning English as a second language, many of them through projects developed by agencies of the United States government.[4]

In the 1950s and '60s several academic organizations had begun interest groups related to TESL. For example, the Speech Association of America had its Speech for Foreign and Bilingual Students Interest Group. Leaders in those professional associations saw the need for a separate organization, and the new group, Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, held its first convention in 1967. The TESOL association now has about 7500 members, regular publications and meetings, and an international outlook.

In the last two decades TESL professionals have turned their efforts toward the problem of language minority groups in the United States, especially Blacks and Chicanos. The field has expanded from its chief interest in college students and adult immigrants so that today one of the most important TESL areas is for "native-born Americans," whose first language or dialect is not English, and of those "most are school children or young adults."[5]

That speech teachers played a major role in the birth and development of this new academic area should not be surprising. Both communication education and TESL are concerned with language learning and what linguists call "communicative competence." In the following sections I wish to discuss the relationship of these two areas, mostly by describing the field of TESL in ways which should continue to attract support from teachers of speech. I would like to give a general outline of the field, draw attention to three specific movements, discuss resources for teachers, and show how those of us in communication can continue to influence TESL.

## TESL Today

Teaching English as a second language is at an all time high throughout the world and in the United States. The worldwide status of English as the language of commerce and industry has created a demand for teaching English in virtually every quarter and to every age group. In the United States three factors have significantly increased TESL activity: crash immigration influxes, minority needs, and the bilingual education movement.[6] The results of this proliferation of ESL teaching include the development of a self image among people working in TESL as a separate profession, new academic organizations, the development of certification standards, new teacher training programs, accelerated government support for schools, a deluge of commercially prepared teaching materials, innovations in curricula and methods, and enlarged research in second language acquisition. An example of this heightened development can be found in TESL teacher training where twenty years ago only a handful of universities offered degrees in the field, usually through departments of linguistics. Currently one can field over a hundred separate degree and certificate programs in the United States, at both undergraduate and graduate levels, many of which exist under specific departments of English as a second language.[7]

A contemporary glance at TESL would be incomplete without reference to some of the issues, research trends, and needs of the field. Methodological questions continue to infuse TESL journals and conventions with exploration and debate. For instance, just as the transformational-generative grammar movement has disrupted traditional practices in teaching English to native speakers, so has it impacted second language teaching. Another area of controversy deals with differences between first and second language learning strategies.[8]

Research in TESL enjoys a breadth similar to that of communication education. In addition to pedagogy, work goes on in psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, neurolinguistics, and applied linguistics.[9] Theory building continues in importance, especially as more and more empirical studies are being carried out.[10] However, graduate research in TESL programs remains largely focused on curriculum design, methods, materials, and teaching techniques.

Most of the field's current needs in the areas of manpower, research, and funding are being attacked in so many ways and so rapidly that it is difficult to assess major problems facing TESL. A highly important issue in the United States is the role of ESL in bilingual education in our schools and educating the public for acceptance of multicultural education. Along these lines, according to Muriel Saville-Troike, "There is an urgent need to formulate a new set of goals, methods, and concepts for ESL instruction if it is to remain viable and make potential contributions to American Education.[11]

In summary, TESL today is strong and growing. Spurred by demands here and abroad, the field has achieved a professional status and has expanded in teaching, teacher training, and research. In the next section I explore three current areas of TESL which may be of interest to teachers of speech.

## Some Current Teaching Areas

Educational movements and events in the last twenty years have brought to the forefront the language needs of several minority groups and programs to remedy them. Discovering the problems and their solutions has required the resources of teachers from various disciplines, especially those concerned with language development. Three areas I wish to mention are bilingual programs, immigration influences, and other minority needs.

The trend toward bilingualism in the United States is quite new. Although the Bilingual Education Act of 1968 provided important direction for states with large numbers of non-English speaking children, it was not until a Supreme Court decision (Lau v. Nichols, 1974) and related directives from the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare made it clear that our schools were obligated to provide bilingual and bicultural curricula for children.[12] An important part of such programs must, of course, be teachers who are trained in helping children learn to communicate orally. As various communities build bilingual programs they will continue to seek assistance from the field of communication education for curriculum design and teaching.[13]

While the school systems of large cities like New York have often attempted to meet the language needs of immigrants, the tendency for immigrant groups to cluster in those cities and the recent massive influxes from Cuba and Southeast Asia, especially, have created new and urgent demands on the schools. Because bilingual programs cannot be established overnight and because of the sheer magnitude of the need in some communities, ESL programs have been and are still needed. Further, in the numerous places where such programs are impossible to devise, as in small towns, the requirements of even small numbers of immigrant children and adults should be served. Often the already overloaded therapist or special education teacher assumes responsibility, on an ad hoc basis or with "pull out" classes. Speech and language arts teachers can support even the most impromptu efforts through evaluation, teaching, and supplying materials and ideas for others.[14]

The third currently important area of ESL in the United States is the teaching of English as a second dialect, or bidialectalism. Communication educators have contributed much interest and effort toward meeting the needs of speakers of Black English. Teachers are concerned not only with equipping some students with another dialect but with attitude development. As one TESL specialist put it "We are firmly committed, then, to the attitude which linguists take that all dialects are useful for communication. If it were otherwise, they would cease to exist. Pupils who come to school speaking a dialect other than the standard should not be made to feel inferior in any way. Schools should consistently impress on all students the validity of varieties of speech. These attitudes of acceptance should be one of the primary targets for teaching."[15] Because of their sensitivities to language development and social communication needs, speech teachers are in a unique position to continue playing a supportive role in this domain.[16]

## ESL Resources for the Speech Communication Teacher

In this section I wish to introduce teachers of speech communication to basic resources for TESL, including professional associations, publications, and materials.

Many individual and groups of countries have organizations devoted to TESL, but these are too numerous to list. However, the international group, Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL, 455 Nevils Building, Georgetown University, Washington, D.C. 20057), has affiliates in America and overseas. The annual meetings, regular publications, placement service, and other activities of TESOL make it an invaluable resource. TESOL conventions and publications stress workshops and practical matters for classroom teachers but respect research as well. The special interest groups reveal the breadth of TESOL's interests: Teaching English Abroad, ESL for Foreign Students in English Speaking Countries, ESL for U.S. Residents in General, ESL in Bilingual Education, ESL in Adult Education, Standard English as a Second Dialect, and Applied Linguistics.

Although several professional groups in the United States support TESL activities, two merit specific mention. The National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (NAFSA) has national and regional meetings, publications, and a strong interest group, the Association of Teachers of English as a Second Language (ATESL), which support efforts, especially at the college level. Second, the National Association of Bilingual Educators (NABE) has begun to provide services for teachers in bilingual programs. In addition, over twenty states have TESL-bilingual education organizations to assist teachers at the local level.

Numerous resources in print provide the field with information on methodology, materials, and research. Perhaps two of the most important journals in the United States are the TESOL Quarterly (TESOL association) and Language Learning (University of Michigan), but several others, such as the NABE Journal, are valuable. The United States Information Service publishes the English Teaching Forum for teachers outside of the United States, and many of the foreign TESL organizations produce useful periodicals. Contemporary and helpful works on methodology abound.

Finding teaching materials for all kinds of programs and at all levels has become fairly simple because of recent activity by commercial publishers. Among those in the United States with strong ESL lines are the Institute of Modern Languages, English Language Services, The University of Michigan Press, Harper and Row, Coller Macmillan, American Book, Newbury House, Prentice-Hall, Regents, McGraw-Hill, and the University of Pittsburgh.

Of supporting government sources one of the most prolific is the ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, at the Center for Applied Linguistics (1611 North Kent Street, Arlington, Virginia 22209). ERIC/CLL publishes numerous contemporary materials on ESL and bilingual education at little or no cost.

In summary, the teacher of speech who wants or needs resources for TESL will find an array of professional groups, practical publications, commercial texts and materials, and other aids which contribute to a variety of endeavors in the field.

## Communicative Competence

A new wave of thinking in TESL makes developing the relationship of communication education and TESL highly attractive from both theoretical and practical standpoints. The movement in one which elevates the linguistic idea of "communicative competence" to such an extent that impact on TESL is already visible. Put simply, communicative competence means the ability of language students to use the second language in real communication situations. ESL teachers "now tend to think that it is more important for the learner to communicate his ideas than to practice utterances with perfect pronunciation. The one thing that everyone is absolutely certain about is the necessary to use language for communicative purposes in the classroom."[17] Because teachers of speech subscribe to the same philosophy for first language development, and have so for a long time, they can contribute to TESL methodology, curriculum design, activity planning, and evaluation.

A recent argument for this kind of collaboration asserts that, "A comprehensive, systematic and necessary change in ESL methodology will occur only when . . . first language principles are articulated and incorporated into an up-to-date ESL method."[18] The author goes on to compare what happens in classes taught by "language arts specialists" with classes taught by ESL instructors and finds the former by far richer for developing communication skills because of the theoretical approach in communication education which stresses the functional use of language and because of the resulting teaching practices.[19] In sum, the ESL teacher must now learn from the speech or language arts teacher both theoretical and methodological insights to develop communicative competence.

Curriculum design provides another area of entry. In TESL attention is shifting to practical language use through "functional" or "notional" plans. According to Mackay, the traditional ESL syllabus is "designed by starting with the question 'What grammatical forms do we want to cover in the syllabus/lesson/unit?' The focus is on the formal syntactic features which are to be included. The notional approach starts by asking, 'What do we want the learner to be able to communicate by means of the language?'"[20]

Next, the ESL teacher needs practical exercises. According to Savignon, "Most important to the learner's progress in developing communicative competence is a variety of activities in which the student can use the second language in unrehearsed, novel situations requiring, on his part, inventiveness, resourcefulness, and a good big of aplomb."[21] Who better than the speech teacher can suggest such activities?

A final change in the teaching of ESL brought on by the communication emphasis in the area of testing. ESL teachers must learn to evaluate language development in new ways, and by monitoring student ability to use the second language in realistic or actual situations.[22] Once again, communication education can provide models for such measurement.

## Conclusion

Dramatic changes in the field of teaching English as a second language, especially in the last two decades, have included increased recognition of the challenging language needs of learners in numerous circumstances. TESL has shifted its attention from international students in college preparatory programs. According to Norris, "Native-born Americans make up an immensely larger group in need of [ESL], and yet their special needs have been all too often ignored or, where recognized, have been met with inadequate, inappropriate, and even self-defeating teaching strategies."[23] Because the majority of these second language learners are children, and because of social concern for all language minorities in the country, new efforts in ESL, in bilingual education, and in teaching English as a second dialect have demanded the resources of all fields concerned with language acquisition. Consultants, teachers, materials, curricula, and activities must often be found locally, where needs exist and where funds for outside professional support may prove inadequate. This is especially the situation where school boards are underfunded and where the number of language minority students is perceived too small to warrant new programs. In any case, teachers of speech can assist in a variety of ways, from evaluation to curriculum planning.

For the newcomer to TESL recent professional organizations, publications, training programs, and other resources make work in this field possible.

Finally, because of the move in TESL toward an emphasis on developing communication skills, communication education can offer support in the development of theory and practice, thus building joint efforts for the solution of a significant educational problem.

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1. A Better Chance to Learn: Bilingual Bicultural Education. United States Commission on Civil Rights Clearinghouse Publication No. 51 (Washington: U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 1975), p. 10. The 1980 census may reveal even more about language minorities in the United States; see Robert Reinhold, "Census Questions on Race Assailed as Political by Population Experts," New York Times, May 14, 1978, pp. 1, 14.

2. Betty Wallace Robinett, "The Domains of TESOL," TESOL Quarterly, 6 (Sept. 1972), 197-207.

3. Steven G. Darian, English as a Foreign Language: History, Development, and Methods of Teaching (Norman, Oklahoma: U. Oklahoma Press, 1972), Chapter 3.

4. Albert H. Marckwardt, "English as a Second Language and English as a Foreign Language," in Harold B. Allen, ed., Teaching English as a Second Language (New York: McGraw Hill, 1965), pp. 3-4.

5. William E. Norris, TESOL at the Beginning of the '70s: Trends, Topics, and Research Needs (Pittsburgh: University Center for International Studies and the Department of General Linguistics, 1971), p. 8.

6. Christina B. Paulston, Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages, 1975: A Dipstick Paper, CAL-ERIC/CLL Series on Languages and Linguistics, Number 39 (Washington: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, and Arlington, Virginia: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, 1976) p. 4. Paulston notes another impetus, adult education, and rightly attributes the major growth factors to recent American social concerns

7. See Charles H. Blatchford, ed., Directory of Teacher Preparation Programs in TESOL and Bilingual Education, 1976-78 (Washington: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, 1977).

8. For an excellent treatment of part of this controversy and a proposed remedy, see Gloria Paulik Sampson, "A Real Challenge to ESL Methodology," TESOL Quarterly, 11 (Sept. 1977), 241-255.

9. Norris, pp. 36-40, presents broad suggestions for such research.

10 Paulston, pp. 8-9.

11 Foundations for Teaching English as a Second Language: Theory and Method for Multicultural Education (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1976), p. vi.

12. A Better Chance to Learn: Bilingual Bicultural Education. Pp. 19-21.

13. On the relationship of TESL and bilingual education, see the "Position Paper on the Role of English as a Second Language in Bilingual Education" in Blatchford, pp. 123-126.

14. As Norris, p. 28, has pointed out, ESL programs are needed in schools at all levels, K-12.
15. Robinett, p. 201; also see Saville-Troike, p. 29.

16. Other language minorities have captured the interest of communication educators. For example, the 1964 convention program of the Speech Association of America lists a panel of papers on "The Speech Communication Training of American Indians" (p. 45), which parallels another concern in TESL. See Norris 16., p. 9.
17. Paulston, p. 11.

18. Sampson, p. 243.

19. Sampson, pp. 245-254.

20. Ronald Mackay, "Functional/Notional Syllabuses," SPEAQ Journal, 1 (Fall 1977), p. 85.

21. Sandra J. Savignon, "Teaching for Communication," English Teaching Forum, 16 (April 1978), 3.

22. Sandra J. Savignon, "Communicative Competence: Theory and Classroom Practice," SPEAQ Journal, 1 (Fall 1977), 5-7.

23. Norris, p. 8.

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# A SHORT GUIDE TO APPROPRIATE TRANSITIONAL BILINGUAL INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMS

*(ED203665)*

Prepared by the Superintendent of
Public Instruction

by

Rosendo Luna, Jr.
Washington State Bilingual Consultant
December, 1979

## PREFACE

On March 5, 1979 the Washington State Legislature passed Senate Bill No. 2149, known as the "Transitional Bilingual Instruction Act of 1979." It gave the State Superintendent's Office the responsibility to develop and implement a transitional bilingual education program. Subsequently, school administrators and educators felt the need for greater knowledge on how to produce and operate appropriate bilingual programs.

This booklet provides administrators and educators some options and descriptions of starting, developing and operating these programs. It attempts to give a flexible set of guidelines whereby the Limited English Proficient (LEP) students eventually benefit from appropriate and feasible programs.

Since each school can best determine the most suitable program for its LEP students, I have attempted to bring out practical alternatives which may fit different needs, policies and procedures.

Keeping in mind that the ability to speak two languages is an asset to an individual, administrators are strongly encouraged to take advantage of this asset when starting a bilingual program. However, in some situations, a program to help students make a transition into the cultural and linguistic mainstream may be preferable and should be recognized.

Whichever approach to bilingual education is taken, I hope that the ideas and suggestions compiled and presented will help to ease the process of establishing a transitional bilingual education program in your school or school district.

Rosendo Luna, Jr.
State Bilingual Consultant

## INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMS

### A. SELECTION OF AN INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM MODEL

1. No single model fits all situations.
2. Begin by examining existing programs.
3. Involve the community in planning and design decisions.
4. Examine the characteristics and needs of the children to be served.
5. Assess resources and support services available.

## B. DESCRIPTION OF INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM MODELS

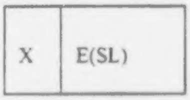
1. Full Bilingual Instructional Program.
    a. Trained bilingual teachers and aides responsible for all instruction.
    b. Language specific and culturally relevant materials are used.
    c. Bilingual teachers and aides team teach and blend instruction in both languages as needed.
    d. Recommended where large numbers of one language group are found in each grade.
2. Partial Bilingual Instructional Program
    a. Regular classroom teacher responsible for instruction.
    b. Bilingual para-professional provides native language instruction and cross-over functions.
        1. Translation
        2. Repetition of curriculum in child's language.
        3. Reinforcement of home culture.
        4. Explanation of American culture.
    c. Recommended where resources are limited although the same language group is represented in all grades.
3. ESL - English as a Second Language Instructional Program
    a. No content instruction in child's language
    b. Special techniques and materials are used in tutorial situations, or other classroom configurations.
    c. A trained ESL teacher is highly desirable if available.
    d. Recommended for the following situations:
        1. Many different languages, few students in any one, scattered.
        2. Limited number of one language group; resources limited.
4. Combination Bilingual Instructional Program
    a. Regular bilingual instruction for some students; ESL for others.
    b. Recommended where many languages are involved, but a sizable group of one language also exists.

## C. OTHER RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Mastery of English should be a strong objective of all programs.
2. Reinforcement of the child's home culture is encouraged wherever possible.
    a. Builds a strong self image.
    b. Contributes to smooth adaptation to the dominant culture.

The State law emphasizes "transitional bilingual instruction, which means the use of two languages, one of which is English, as a means of instruction to build upon and expand language skills to enable the pupil to achieve competency in English. Concepts and information are introduced in the primary language and reinforced in the second language: PROVIDED that the program shall include testing in the subject matter in English."

On the following page is an explanation and diagram of a transitional model/approach.



X = Child's Home Language
E = English as Child's Second Language

-- This model begins instruction in the child's home language, but the second language (English) is the ultimate objective, and is introduced in increasing increments until all instruction is in English. This approach is encouraged by those who do not feel the necessity to reinforce the child's home language, and also by those who feel the second language (E) will receive the benefit of the child's increased language-learning capacity at an early age.

– While it is possible to maintain the home language at some level throughout the curriculum, many bilingual educators feel that continued and more equal emphasis on the home language pays great dividends in the child's image of himself—in his perception of the worth and value of his language.

# SERVICE DELIVERY MODELS *

## OUTREACH (TRAVELING) MODEL

I. Bilingual/ESL tutoring aides travel from central office (Bilingual Resource Center) to targeted students' schools to offer ESL/Bilingual instruction.

(Pull-out Tutoring)
- A. ESL tutoring, culture and history
- B. Home liaison
- C. Required Subject Matter (RSM) tutoring (limited to "A&B" students)

II. Central program office of bilingual/ESL teacher(s) and aide(s) travel to target students' schools.

(Scheduled Classes)
- A. Formal and scheduled ESL instruction
- B. Formal and scheduled RSM tutoring/class using English and native language
- C. Culture and history sharing
- D. Home liaison

III. Central program office should be staffed by the best qualified personnel (teacher(s) and aide(s)

- A. Bilingual/ESL teacher(s) should provide: (1) diagnostic services, (2) curriculum materials, (3) training of aides and volunteers, (4) strong inter-cultural activities, and (5) direct services working with aides, volunteers, parents and classroom teachers.
- B. Bilingual/ESL teacher(s) should also design an instructional program to develop and expand competencies of each student.
- C. Supervised bilingual aides will provide English language development and bilingual services in RSM, culture and history, and contact between home and school.
- D. Traveling TUTORS should preplan tutoring sessions.
  - small, pull-out groups in individual schools
  - assist in student registration, P-T-S-A conferences
  - introduce American institutions, customs and culture
  - explain classroom activities and homework
  - review classwork and explain assignment and problems in the native language (increase ESL gradually, while decreasing bilingual language gradually)
  - meet students' parents once a month: home translation
  - acquaint parents with program and staff, American public school system, and help at home for their children
  - help staff understand home situations
- E. Volunteers
  - augment resources through peer tutors, PTSA/PTA volunteer tutors and community volunteers
  - receive training by district and bilingual Resource Center Staff
  - assigned to specific students to provide aid to students in understanding and speaking English

## IN CLASS (SCHEDULED) MODEL

I. Bilingual/ESL staff assigned to scheduled class/building.
- A. Students bussed to central location
- B. Student-teacher ration: 15-1 (homogenous groupings)
- C. Group/Individualized instruction in English (1/2 hr/day/student) with a teacher aide (Elementary)/1 hr/day/student-(Secondary)
- D. Bilingual specialists go to the regular classrooms to provide individual and small group activities in the core subjects; reading, spelling, writing and math, and bicultural activities.

II. Roles and duties of staff: See Outreach Model.

## MODEL FOR INSTRUCTION, IN ORDER OF PRIORITY

All services will be provided in the schools which the students normally attend. Bilingual instruction and materials will be provided to the extent possible and available.

I. Serve a class or group of students from the same language group at similar levels of need for up to two hours per day, providing students with the following services:

- A. Bilingual instruction, materials, activities
- B. Instruction in developing oral English skills
- C. Instruction in reading English
- D. Application of English skills in content classes
- E. Cultural awareness activities.

II. Serve a class or group of students from the same language group at similar levels of need for up to two hours per day, providing the students with the following services:

- A. Bilingual materials
- B. Instruction in developing oral English skills
- C. Instruction in reading English
- D. Application of English skills in content classes
- E. Cultural awareness activities.

III. Serve a class or group of students from different language groups at similar levels of need for up to two hours per day, providing the students with the following services:

- A. Instruction in developing oral English skills
- B. Instruction in reading English
- C. Application of English skills in content classes
- D. Cultural awareness activities.

## SUMMARY

Two Models:
- A. Outreach ESL/Bilingual
- B. In-Class ESL/Bilingual

ESL/bilingual program serve students in the home school.
- A. Pull students out of regular classroom for ESL/bilingual instruction in a separate classroom.
- B. LEP students remain in regular classes and ESL/bilingual teacher or aide comes into their classes for tutoring/individualized help.

ESL instruction may be used for lack of high concentration of any one language group in one school site. Elementary/secondary characteristics vary in usage.

*Suggested models taken from Puget Sound Bilingual Education Consortium Proposal 1979.

# CHECKLIST OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION COMPONENTS FOR SCHOOL DISTRICTS TO IMPLEMENT

## GOALS

- ☐ Provide opportunities for all Limited English Speaking children to receive more meaningful education.
- ☐ Use the child's home language until the child's command of English is sufficient for conceptual growth.
- ☐ Use the developed home language to facilitate the learning of the second language.
- ☐ Develop a positive self-image for the child in his/her own cultural heritage and for other cultures as well.
- ☐ Provide for parental and community involvement in the instructional and cultural activities of the school.
- ☐ Provide pre and inservice training for bilingual staff and other staff members in individualized and small group bilingual teaching techniques.
- ☐ Provide an integrated and coordinated learning environment for bilingual programs.
- ☐ Design a dissemination model.
- ☐ Develop an evaluation system.

## PROGRAMS - Planning

- ☐ Parent and Community Involvement
- ☐ Advisory Committee
- ☐ Needs Assessment
- ☐ Teacher Questionnaire
- ☐ Diagnostic/Prescriptive Measures
- ☐ Home Language Survey
- ☐ English Proficiency Testing
- ☐ Technical Program Assistance
- ☐ Languages and Cultures Identified for Targeted Groups
- ☐ Integrated and Coordinated Courses
- ☐ Specific Program Objectives Written
- ☐ Bilingual Coordinator
- ☐ Assessment of Available Resources
- ☐ District Commitment to Bilingual Education
- ☐ Program Design
- ☐ Parent/Community Volunteers
- ☐ Full Bilingual
- ☐ Partial Bilingual
- ☐ ESL with Intercultural Curriculum
- ☐ Staffing and Staff Development Qualified and Competent
- ☐ Trained Instructional Aides
- ☐ Teacher Training in Bilingual Teaching Strategies, Methodologies, Goals and Objectives, Cultural Awareness

## PROGRAM - BILINGUAL CHARACTERISTICS

☐ Basic concepts taught in native languages.

☐ Language development provided in child's dominant language.

☐ Language development provided in child's second language.

☐ Subject matter and concepts taught in the second language of the child.

☐ Child's self-image positively enhanced through cultural heritage, self-assurance and confidence participation.

## EVALUATION

☐ Needs Assessment

☐ Goals and Objectives

☐ Monitoring

☐ Final Evaluation

☐ Instructional Areas

☐ Staff Development

☐ Parent Community Involvement

☐ Seek Technical Assistance from DOE

# A MANUAL FOR ENCOURAGING PARENT - COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN BILINGUAL EDUCATION AND ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE PROGRAMS

*(ED250420)*

Ohio Department of Education
Office of Equal Educational Opportunity
1984

## INTRODUCTION

The purpose of bilingual education and English as a second language (ESL) programs is to provide the supplementary educational services needed by limited English proficient (LEP) students to acquire the English language skills necessary for success in school. In Ohio, an estimated 8,000 LEP students have been identified as eligible for supplementary educational services in the form of bilingual or ESL instruction. These services are funded under programs such as Title VII, Bilingual Education, the Transition Program for Refugee Children, Chapter 1 of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, and the Ohio Disadvantaged Pupil Program Funds (DPPF), or locally through the school district's general funds.

Although the main focus of bilingual or ESL programs is on providing students with the assistance they need to make a successful transition into all English classroom settings in all subject areas, personnel in Ohio's bilingual and ESL programs also realize that encouraging parent and community involvement in the program enhances student academic achievement. Several Ohio school districts that receive Title VII funds have developed programs within the bilingual or ESL programs specifically for the benefit of the LEP students' parents. Furthermore, all Title VII funded school districts are required by law to establish parent advisory councils (PAC's) to assist school personnel in the planning, operation, and evaluation of the Title VII program.

However, it is apparent that legal mandates alone do not guarantee that parents and community members will be involved effectively in the bilingual or ESL programs serving their children. In fact, very often, PAC's are viewed with suspicion by school officials and staff. "If the law did not require it, they would not have Councils at all. They either view a PAC as an inconvenience and a nuisance, or they conjure up fears about the potential for the Council to challenge their authority or to 'meddle' in school affairs."[1] On the other hand, school officials and staff sometimes complain that the parents of LEP students show little concern for their children's educational progress because they seem reluctant to participate in school activities or because they do not inquire about their children's progress in school.

Many of these difficulties are obviously due to lack of understanding and information on the part of both school personnel and LEP students' parents. For this reason, it is particularly important that the school provide leadership in bridging the gap between the home and the school. This is especially necessary with LEP students who have cultures, traditions, and languages which differ from the English speaking majority group.

Evidence has shown that not only do parents and students benefit from participation in the school's activities, but also the school profits by the public support that such participation generates.[2] Furthermore, there is evidence that active parent involvement in the academic progress of their children contributes to high academic achievement.

Parent and community involvement programs involve such activities as teaching parents to speak English or utilizing them as volunteer tutors or classroom aides. Sometimes, parents can even serve as PAC members and assist in the planning, operation, and evaluation of the language program. However, although many districts tailor their parent-community programs to suit their individual needs, there appears to be a lack of systematic approaches that could be replicated in other educational settings. The purpose of this handbook is to provide guidelines for developing and implementing structured parent-community involvement programs which could be applicable to school districts in a variety of settings. The guidelines will include the following:

1. assessment of the needs of the school, parents, community members, and students
2. the design of goals, objectives, and activities for the program
3. strategies for evaluating the program's effectiveness

## INTENDED AUDIENCE

This publication will be useful to bilingual or ESL program directors, building principals, ESL or bilingual teachers or tutors, classroom teachers, counselors, paraprofessionals, and other school staff who work with LEP students. In addition, parents of LEP students, members of the LEP community, as well as members of the English speaking community will benefit from the information included in this handbook.

## SECTION ONE
## ASSESSING SCHOOL, PARENT, AND COMMUNITY NEEDS

As a public system, the school has a unique and vital role to play in insuring that equal educational opportunity is insured for limited English proficient (LEP) students. Schools also serve their own interests when the community and parents are supportive of their efforts. The acceptance of parent and community involvement as an integral part of a bilingual or ESL program provides a unique opportunity to ensure equal educational opportunity for students and to generate public support for the school's efforts.

In an attempt to promote parent and community involvement in bilingual education programs as a means of enhancing the academic achievement of LEP students, districts receiving Title VII, Bilingual Education funds are required to establish parent advisory councils (PAC's) to assist in the planning, operation, and evaluation of Title VII programs. The federal government has further confirmed the importance of parent involvement by allowing districts receiving funds under the Transition Program for Refugee Children to use up to 15 percent of their money for parent education activities.

However, despite efforts by many school districts to provide opportunities for parent and community participation in bilingual and ESL programs, parents often fail to participate actively in school activities. In addition, conflicts may arise between parents, community members, and school officials. Many of these conflicts appear to be rooted in lack of cross-cultural awareness on the part of school personnel and insufficient communication between the school, parents of LEP students, and members of the LEP community. These two factors also influence the extent to which schools are able to develop and implement structured parent and community involvement programs.

Since the school can take a leadership role in encouraging parent and community involvement in bilingual education and ESL programs, a first step is to create a climate that is conducive to enlisting parent and community volunteers in the school's activities.[3] This is especially important when dealing with language minority students since cultural and linguistic barriers often cause misunderstanding between the school, parents, and members of the community.

The school has a responsibility to reflect the needs of the community in which it is located and to gain the support of the community it serves. However, too often, schools enrolling significant numbers of LEP students have managed to operate programs which claim to serve LEP students but which have a minimum input from the parental and community centers. In order to remove barriers caused by lack of trust, and limited information about the cultures and traditions of the LEP population, school district personnel need to demonstrate commitment to the belief that parent and community involvement has positive effects on student achievement in school.

Teachers, principals, administrators, and tutors first need to determine what their own attitudes are towards involving parents and community members in the education of LEP students. Second, they need to determine what are the areas of greatest concern for parents and community members. Third, they need to determine which areas are most appropriate for parent and community involvement.

## ASSESSING ATTITUDES

There are two main areas that should be addressed by school personnel in assessing their attitudes toward parent and community involvement in bilingual education or ESL programs: (1) attitudes toward LEP students' cultural and linguistic differences and (2) expectations of LEP students' parents with regard to their input into the education of their children.

In terms of the first area, school personnel need to be aware of the special problems faced by language minority students because of language and cultural differences. For example, a regular classroom teacher might not be aware that in Asian cultures a student might smile if he or she is embarrassed, not because he or she is amused. Similarly, many Asian female students feel uncomfortable when they are made to work together in groups with male students. Even though students may seem to be fitting into American culture, differences will become evident from time to time. Older LEP students in particular, may feel alienated form the new culture and this will be compounded by language barriers. School personnel should therefore strive to be open to LEP students' culture and to be aware of areas of potential language and cultural conflict.

School personnel also need to assess their expectations of parents as partners in their children's education. Many LEP students also come from low socioeconomic backgrounds. Moreover, if they are new arrivals in the country, families may tend to be withdrawn and reluctant to participate openly in school activities. Cultural factors can also play a part in preventing LEP parents from communicating with school personnel. For example, many Asians hesitate to question the services being provided to their children because in Asian countries, educational institutions and educators command high respect. Consequently, it would be considered improper to challenge the expertise of school professionals and to dispute the schools' policies and treatment of students.

Nevertheless, school personnel can play an important part in building trust and encouraging openness among parents. It has been suggested that many LEP parents are very responsive toward school staff who are viewed as supportive and who try to overcome language barriers.

Some of the specific issues that may be addressed in assessing attitudes of school personnel include the following:

1. How are the LEP students' language and culture perceived: as a disadvantage or as a strength on which the school can use to help them achieve their full potential?

2. Are opportunities for cross-cultural exchanges encouraged or is American culture portrayed as "right" while the LEP students' cultures are considered "wrong"?

3. Are opportunities for formal (a newsletter translated into the parents' languages for example) and informal contact with parents and community members available to promote an exchange of information between parents, the community, and the school?

4. Is parent and community involvement viewed as a "necessary evil" rather than as an activity that should be vigorously pursued?

These questions do not exhaust the list of possible areas for assessment. Each district will have to address those attitudes that seem to fit its circumstances. However, in order to promote cross-cultural understanding and to reduce the gap between the school's values and those of LEP students, it is very important that school personnel perform this initial soul searching to help identify the school's strengths and weaknesses in promoting parent and community participation.

## ASSESSING PARENT AND COMMUNITY CONCERNS

The purpose of conducting a needs assessment prior to developing and implementing a parent-community involvement program is to ensure that the program addresses the wishes, concerns, and desires of the individuals it is intended to serve. Some parent-community involvement programs give little attention to parents' needs or to resources available in the district. A needs assessment will insure that the program serves a real purpose either by satisfying a need for services or by responding to a widespread interest. In other words, a needs assessment will provide district personnel with information on the areas in which parents desire to participate as well as on the number of parents who wish to be involved in school activities.

Typically, parent and community concerns focus on three broad areas: (1) parents' aspirations for their children's education; (2) parent involvement in activities that are appropriate to their resources, expertise, interests, and values; and (3) school appreciation of the fact that parents' linguistic and cultural heritages have positive influences on their children. These areas of concern need to be addressed through a variety of needs assessment procedures such as bilingual parent surveys, home visits, and informal interviews with parents or with community leaders.

Parent Surveys. Parent surveys are useful for collecting demographic and socio-cultural information about the ethnic, linguistic, social, cultural, and attitudinal characteristics of the parents in the district. For example, through a parent survey, a profile can be developed of the number of persons in the community that are from language minority backgrounds, their levels of education, language spoken, family relationships, recreational habits, rituals or customs they observe, communication channels, group affiliations, and decision-making mechanisms. Parent surveys ideally should be sent out to homes in the district at the beginning of the school year and should be translated into the languages the parents speak. For an example of some of the information that might be solicited through a parent survey see Sample 1.

Home Visits. Home visits are an effective method of obtaining information from parents on their perceived needs, their children's needs and their concerns about the school. Home visits can usually be arranged if the district has the resources to employ a home-school liaison or home-school coordinator. In the absence of a home-school liaison, it may be possible to enlist the assistance of willing teachers to conduct home visits. Teachers may be bilingual, but if they are not, they should be accompanied by a bilingual aide, an interpreter, or a bilingual volunteer.

Home visits enable school personnel to have face-to-face conversations with parents and they serve as an effective vehicle for getting school staff and parents to interact on a personal basis. School personnel are generally more likely to take an interest in children whose families they know or have met. Also, by visiting the homes of parents from a different cultural or linguistic background, school staff can help overcome the reluctance that parents might feel about contacting the school. Home visits have a further advantage in that they can be used to solicit the input and participation of pre-literate parents.

Informal Interviews. Informal interviews can be conducted with parents or with community members who wield influence with the language minority groups in the district. Community or group leaders can often be contacted at public or volunteer agencies by telephone or in person. Often, they can provide information on the communication channels available in the community, how extensively they are used, and which ones are most effective for reaching different groups of people. It should be remembered, however, that different individuals within the same ethnic group will use different channels of communication and one leader or group does not necessarily represent the interests or opinions of the ethnic group as a whole.

Once the desired information from the needs assessment has been collected, the data should be processed using a format that will indicate the following:

1. community characteristics and demographic patterns
2. parent-community concerns and needs
3. potential parent participants
4. parent resources and expertise

It will be time consuming to sort through the many comments and perceptions garnered, but in the long run it will be worthwhile. The assessment will provide not only a sound basis for planning interesting and useful activities, but will also provide critical information for establishing roles for parents in the parent-community program.

## SAMPLE I.
## PARENT INTEREST SURVEY[4]

Dear ______________________________

Address ______________________________

______________________________

Telephone ______________________________

I am asking for your help in order to enrich and enlarge your child's program at school.

Do you have a hobby or interest to share? If yes, specify ______________________________

Do you have talent you are willing to share (cooking, sewing, woodworking, music, art, dramatics, other)? If yes, what? ______________________________

Would you be interested in helping with any of the following?
__________ If so, please check which one(s):

____ telephoning
____ cutting out pictures
____ lunchroom supervision
____ advisory council
____ typing
____ bulletin boards
____ library supervision
____ tutoring

Do you have ideas of other ways in which you would like to become involved in our parent program?

______________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________

What time(s) would you be able to help us? Please check:

____ before school
____ morning
____ noon
____ afternoon
____ after school
____ other (specify)

______________________________

Are there others in your family or neighborhood who would be interested in helping with this program? _____ If yes, please specify ______________________________

______________________________

Sign as Desired

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

## SECTION TWO
## DESIGNING AND IMPLEMENTING A STRUCTURED PARENT AND COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT PROGRAM

The purpose of this section is to provide guidelines for designing and implementing a parent and community involvement program in a systematic manner. From the needs assessment, valuable information will be available on parent and community needs and resources. The next steps are to match the program design with the needs and resources that have been identified and to implement the planned activities.

The following five (5) areas will form the basis of the program design and implementation:

1. defining and communicating parent and community roles and responsibilities
2. recruiting and selecting participants
3. planning activities based on identified needs and resources
4. providing coordination and ongoing support for the parent and community program
5. training participants and school staff.

## DEFINING AND COMMUNICATING PARENT AND COMMUNITY ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

It is important to assure parents that the school is adequately performing its instructional role and that this is perceived to be so by teachers, administrators, and students. If this perception is clearly communicated to parents, conflict will be reduced and the parent-community involvement program will have a better chance of success.

School personnel can legitimately indicate from the outset that instruction is primarily the school's responsibility, yet at the same time they can acknowledge that parent involvement is welcomed and encouraged in specific and clearly defined areas.

## CONDUCT A NEEDS ASSESSMENT

**Parent-Community Involvement Needs Assessment**

Assess Attitudes of School Personnel
- cross-cultural awareness and sensitivity
- expectations of parents
- attitudes towards parent participation in school activities

Assess Parent and Community Needs, Attitudes, and Concerns
- devise and administer parent survey
- conduct home visits
- make informal contacts with community agencies and community leaders

Analyze the Data Collected
- determine community characteristics
- define needs and concerns
- identify potential parent-community involvement activities
- identify potential participants

**Figure 1**

# DEFINE AND COMMUNICATE PARENT AND COMMUNITY ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

**Parent-Community Roles and Responsibilities**

Define and Organize the Scope and Format of the Parent Involvement Program
- define the scope of parent participation (advisory, coordinating)
- define the format of parent participation (ongoing, ad hoc)

Inform Parents about the Parent Involvement Program
- conduct public meetings
- publicize meetings through print media, radio, and T.V.
- elect or appoint participants to help coordinate the program

Develop and State Program Goals
- define broad program goals and objectives
- define specific areas of need

**Figure 2**

Organizing the Parent-Community Involvement Group. School administrators should decide in advance what general form they wish the parent-community involvement program to take. For example, Title VII funded bilingual programs are required to have PAC's. The parent program can be administered through a Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) or Parent-Teacher Organization (PTO). Similarly, a special bilingual parent committee could be established to work with the bilingual program in the school. On the other hand, the home-school coordinator might have the primary responsibility for developing the program. Whatever decision is reached on the form of the group, it should be communicated to parents and interested community members, preferably at a public meeting. Potential participants should be notified through a newspaper advertisement or a notice printed in the school newsletter (if there is one) that parents are invited to attend a meeting to discuss potential areas for parent involvement. Naturally, these notices should be translated into the parents' languages. It might also be useful to ask students to notify their parents of the upcoming meeting and to publicize the event on the radio or television. This would be particularly helpful for parents who do not read their native language.

At that meeting, members of a PAC or parent committee could be chosen or the home-school coordinator could solicit parent volunteers to form an advisory group. Members may be appointed or elected depending on the wishes of the group. It is suggested that a committee or council of eight to twelve people be primarily responsible for helping to develop the parent and community involvement program. The majority of these persons should, of course, be parents. However, the home-school coordinator, teachers who work with bilingual children, or community members who represent the interests of the bilingual community may also participate on this committee.

Developing Program Goals and Objectives. This group should help to develop policies, goals, objectives and meeting schedules, and communicate those to school personnel. The school should work closely with the parent group to ensure that the program's goals and objectives are consistent with the school district's own policies. Once the coordinator, parent group, and school administrators have agreed on the general scope and objectives of the committee, the next step is to define the specific tasks that parents will be asked to perform as part of the program. For example, school personnel could indicate to parents that they need volunteers to serve as classroom tutors or aides, to transport parents to functions or meetings, to serve as translators, or to assist with any other need that has been identified. A list of areas could be developed by the coordinator and parent committee.

This list should reflect those needs identified in the needs assessment.

## RECRUIT AND SELECT PARTICIPANTS

Parents from language minority backgrounds may need special encouragement to participate in a parent and community involvement program. This is especially true if they have had negative experiences with the school. As previously indicated, all parents should be notified about the formation of the parent committee or group. However, for accomplishing specific tasks such as tutoring or translating, active coordinated recruitment by the parent committee is needed. This group, being representative of the parents themselves has greater opportunity than school staff to interact with parents on a personal basis. If the school has a home-school liaison or home-school coordinator, this person can bear most of the responsibility for contacting parents individually and requesting their participation.

**Recruit and Select Parent and Community Participants**

Contact Potential Participants
- send written invitations to parents
- make personal contact with parents
- screen parents based on enthusiasm, expertise, commitment

**Figure 3**

If the recruiting effort has been successful, it is possible that there may be more potential candidates than activities planned. However, as a general rule, the school should seek to foster the maximum involvement of interested parents. Parents may be screened based on factors such as enthusiasm, availability, and probable skill levels. English-speaking parents can also be recruited since they can be a valuable resource in areas such as teaching ESL. However, it must be remembered that in most cases, parents will need to be trained for whatever activity they perform for the school.

## PLAN ACTIVITIES BASED ON IDENTIFIED NEEDS AND RESOURCES

Parent and community involvement activities should be planned by the parent committee in conjunction with the school through the home-school liaison. It should be clearly communicated to parents that the purpose of the parent-community involvement program is to help their children succeed in school and to allow them to participate in their children's education. Therefore, the activities planned should provide for more than periodic social interaction. Festive functions can serve as effective icebreakers. However, if the program is limited to bake sales and teas, it might not be perceived as having any importance or any educational value.

Planned activities should include at least one component that has educational significance such as a preschool reading program in which parents are trained to teach their children to read before they go to kindergarten, a volunteer tutoring program for students having difficulty mastering subject content, or a program which allows parents to serve as bilingual resource persons in the classroom or in the library.

**Plan Parent-Community Activities and Schedules**

Develop a Master Plan of Activities
- define the nature of activities (social, supportive, political, educational)
- obtain approval from the school board

Develop a Schedule of Activities
- coordinate scheduling with other school activities
- develop timelines
- post schedule in a prominent location
- advertise schedule in print media, on radio, or TV
- request parent participation on a one-to-one basis

**Figure 4**

Develop a Master Plan of Activities. The activities proposed for the program should be based on the needs that have been identified and the resources available. They should then be presented to school administrators and the school board by way of the home-school liaison or program directors. Since the school board may have to approve the planned activities, coordinators should assist in developing topics bearing board policy in mind. If activities are proposed that may conflict with school policy, the coordinator or other school official should communicate this to the committee so that the members will know what types of activities are appropriate for the program.

Once the activities are approved, they should be communicated to the entire language minority community in the district. Even though all parents may not wish to participate for various reasons, all parents should be given the opportunity to participate. A schedule of activities should be printed and posted in a prominent location. In addition, the schedule can be published in a school newsletter, or, better yet, in a parent newsletter that is translated into the parents' languages. Notices of activities should always be publicized just before the events are due to occur.

A full schedule of activities should be posted in a prominent place. This will allow parents who were reluctant to participate in the beginning or who might have recently moved into the district to offer their assistance at any time during the school year in an area appropriate to their expertise. The schedule can also be used as the basis for assigning parents to different activities. Parents should be asked individually whether they wish to participate in a particular phase of the program before the program is implemented. This courtesy creates a positive impression that coordinators are sensitive to the individual needs and desires of participants.

The following is a list of potential activities in which parents could be involved. However, school districts should always seek to involve parents in the areas of greatest need identified within their boundaries. This list merely serves to indicate potential areas of parent involvement and is not meant to be a prescription for all school districts.

## POTENTIAL AREAS OF PARENT AND COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

Resource Teachers, Tutors, Classroom Aides. Parents instruct students (or other parents) in subject content, English as a second language (ESL).

Transportation. Parents can transport parents to parent meetings or students on field trips.

Evaluation. Parents can be used to collect data from other parents on the success of the parent-community involvement program.

Planning. Parents can be utilized to help plan the parent and community involvement program or the bilingual/ESL program as a whole.

Supervision. Parents can supervise on the playground or in the lunchroom at school.

Fund-Raising. Parents can raise money to help support school activities such as acquiring audio-visual equipment for the language program, textbooks, sports equipment, or clothing for needy children.

Direct Assistance. Parents provide direct services in any needed area such as distributing food or clothing to families, painting a classroom, or repairing equipment.

Social and Cultural Events. Parents sponsor or assist in organizing and conducting social and cultural events such as dinners, picnics, and holiday festivities. They may make costumes, prepare food, or make decorations for these occasions.

Political Support. Parents write letters to government officials or private organizations concerning policies and programs, or they lobby the school board in support of issues.

Disseminating Information To Other Parents. Parents may be in charge of developing and disseminating a multilingual newsletter or magazine to other parents.

The above list of activities provides sufficient breadth to insure that most parents will have the expertise to participate in some aspect of the program. Those who do not feel comfortable participating in instruction or political activities can direct their energies toward supportive activities. It would be wise for those planning the program to include a variety of activities in the schedule so that a majority of parents could participate according to their expertise and time constraints. School personnel also need to be sensitive to the fact that some activities (such as a parent committee) will require more extensive commitment than others (such as making a dish for a multicultural dinner). All parents should not be expected to make the same level of commitment to the program. Each parent's circumstances should be viewed individually and parents should not feel pressured to provide services that are beyond their resources.

## PROVIDE COORDINATION FOR THE PARENT-COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT PROGRAM

A program to involve parents and community members in school activities should be coordinated carefully and planned in relationship to other school or district activities. The parent program should be integrated into overall school activities and should not be viewed as a peripheral part of the school's agenda. An invaluable source of coordination is the home-school liaison. Besides spearheading the planning of activities and the recruiting of parent volunteers, the liaison will also be responsible for publicizing activities and for insuring that if parents are assisting with an activity, they know what to do, how many persons to prepare for, and all the other details associated with their participation. The liaison will also organize transportation for parents who need it as well as babysitting or day-care services.

**Coordinate the Parent and Community Involvement Program**

Provide Home-School Liaison Personnel to
- coordinate planning with parents
- make personal contact with parents
- develop schedule of activities
- act as liaison with school personnel
- organize activities
- provide support services to parents (transportation, child-care)
- maintain a resource file of potential participants
- coordinate training for school staff and parents
- coordinate evaluation of the program

**Figure 5**

The liaison should make sure that the schedule of activities is not so overloaded that parents will not be able to participate. For example, the entire school or district calendar should be reviewed prior to planning social or cultural activities so that conflicts will be avoided.

The liaison should also be responsible for maintaining a file on parent participants which includes their names, addresses, telephone numbers, and the area(s) in which they wish to participate. (For a sample of the kind of information that should be kept in the file, refer to the Parent Interest Survey, Sample I on Page 9). This file should also have information in whether the parent works, what his or her schedule is like, and other relevant information. This file can be cataloged by the type of activity or alphabetically by the parents' names. It might be useful to catalogue the file both by topic and by names. If an emergency should arise or if a parent volunteer should cancel an activity at the last moment, the coordinator can use the file as a resource for finding assistance or a replacement.

## TRAIN PARENT PARTICIPANTS AND SCHOOL STAFF

The success of any parent and community involvement program depends largely on the training that is provided to both the school staff and to parents and community members. School staff need training to sensitize them to cross-cultural issues or to prepare them to serve as trainers of parents. Parents will need training before they can conduct evaluations, organize events, plan a schedule of activities, or serve as tutors, supervisors, or aides.

Training may be provided either before the activity begins or during the time that the parents are serving as volunteers.

**Train Parents, School Staff, and Community Members**

Identity Areas of Training for Parents and Staff

Identify Parent and Staff Participants

Develop Training Modes and Schedules
- topics
- number of participants
- timelines
- training materials and trainers

Provide Feedback for Training Participants
- hold regular feedback sessions
- provide for social and peer interaction during sessions

**Figure 6**

School staff members who are training parents should themselves be trained before being required to provide inservice instruction to parents. Training sessions will vary in depth and length of time depending on the activity involved. For example, if parents are supervising children on the playground, a short meeting with them and a handout on strategies for supervising students or on what to do in emergencies will suffice. However, if parents are assisting with an extensive adult literacy program or if they are teaching English to parents, the training required will be more intensive. Whatever the circumstances, the home-school liaison or coordinator should have very clear objectives for the training sessions and these should be clearly communicated to parents.

Training both school staff and parents has several advantages. School staff can lean how to use volunteers more effectively and can learn strategies for making parents feel welcome and valued in the school. At the same time, parents who receive training may feel reassured about their ability to perform a particular task.

The following are some potential areas of training for school staff, the coordinator, parents, and community members.

## AREAS OF TRAINING FOR STAFF AND PARENTS

Coordinator and School Staff

- cultural awareness
- recruiting parents
- public relations
- leadership
- school policies
- communication skills
- liaison and coordination techniques
- conflict management

Parents and Community Members

- leadership skills
- public relations
- skills specific to a given task
- the goals and objectives of bilingual education or ESL programs

Training is one method of maintaining regular communication with parents in a task-oriented setting. Workshops could be held in which parents can clarify expectations and get feedback from school staff about their roles and responsibilities. The coordinator could set up weekly meetings with parent volunteers who are engaged in a specific activity, for example, tutoring in English. If the activity is short-term such as a dinner or picnic, the coordinator should schedule meetings prior to the date of the event and should be sure to acknowledge the assistance provided by the parents publicly. If time and resources permit, individual "thank-you" notes should be sent to each parent that participated or to those that did a particularly outstanding job.

To reinforce inservice training, written communication regarding expectations, roles, or tasks for each activity should be sent to parents. Parents will be able to refer to these handouts from time to time if the need arises. Finally, to encourage interaction between parents, school staff, and interested community members, social gatherings can be incorporated into inservice training. For example, a training session on ESL methodology can be conducted using a potluck dinner. If a variety of cultures are represented in the district, school staff and parents will get a chance to be exposed to the food and customs of others. The potluck will therefore serve several purposes. Not only will it be educational, but it will also be a social and cultural experience.

## SECTION THREE
## MONITOR AND EVALUATE THE PARENT-COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT PROGRAM

Perhaps the most challenging aspect of parent and community involvement programs is the monitoring and evaluation of the program's success in meeting its goals. Parent and community programs involve numerous and mobile participants and monitoring their activities can be a complex task. Also, recently, it has been acknowledged that parents themselves can and should help evaluate all aspects of bilingual programs including instruction, support activities, planning and operation.

### PROGRAM MONITORING

Proper planning in the initial stages of the program's development is essential to monitoring parent participation effectively. Parents often have priorities that conflict with planned activities, and this should be taken into account when setting goals for participation and selecting potential participants. Activities will need to be scheduled well in advance and flexibility should be exercised in matching parents to tasks and activities. If these ingredients are included in the program design, the coordinator or program director can use simple, but effective techniques for monitoring the program.

Some effective methods for monitoring the parent involvement program include logs of parent volunteers or participants, informal observation by teachers, principals, or the coordinator, interviews with parents to obtain their perceptions, and survey evaluations.

Logs. A card file can be maintained on each parent volunteer. This file should indicate when the individuals started work, what type of activity they were assigned, their schedule, and basic information such as name, address, and telephone number. This log will help the coordinator decide whether a volunteer has participated on an intermittent or continuous basis. It might also suggest future roles for that person.

Informal Observation. Principals and classroom teachers have the best opportunity to observe parent volunteers who work in libraries, in the classroom, or on the playground. The coordinator also has an excellent chance to observe parent volunteers who work in the school or who help with organizing social and cultural events. The observations of all these persons will be very useful for determining areas in which parents might need more training.

Observation should be viewed as a mechanism for determining parents' strengths and weaknesses and for providing the feedback and assistance needed for improvement. Generally, observation should not be used as a means of screening out parents because a primary goal should be to foster the involvement of all parents who wish to participate.

Interviews. Classroom teachers or the coordinator should schedule periodic interviews with parent and community volunteers (especially those who act as tutors or aides) to evaluate how well specific tasks are being performed. Immediate feedback should be provided during interviews and special care should be taken to make them as nonthreatening as possible. An atmosphere of openness and give-and-take should characterize interviews with parents.

Surveys. A written evaluation instrument with predetermined criteria can be developed and administered to parent volunteers at a specific time. These surveys should be written in the parents' languages and should attempt to solicit their opinions about the parent program, its strengths and weaknesses and ways for making it better. Surveys should not, however, be the sole means of evaluating the program's success. All the techniques mentioned above should be incorporated into the evaluation design in addition to a written survey.

### PARENT PARTICIPATION IN EVALUATION

In a recent article, the Impact Institute's Project Parent Involvement and Evaluation (PIE) indicated that parents make effective evaluators of a bilingual or ESL program. Obviously, this assumes the parents have received adequate training in the goals and objectives of the program and are familiar with legal issues concerning bilingual/ESL instruction, as well as with the basic concepts of bilingual education or ESL programs:

> "... the most important reason for promoting the involvement of parents in program evaluation activities relates to the fact that the PIE activities give parents their first, organized approach to the development of value statements related to their child's education. Middle and upper income mainstream-type parents throughout the country are continuously making judgments related to their child's schooling... Minority parents are less inclined to make judgments about the educational

> process at school and linguistic minority parents are even more disenfranchised from the school setting because they feel they have no background which gives them a right to judge the educational process and limited English skills..."[5]

It is important to stress that in some cases, schools will have to make a concerted effort to encourage parents to become involved in evaluation, since some parents will resist the notion for cultural reasons. However, adequate training must be provided to parents before requiring them to administer a survey, for example. Parents can be trained in developing observation techniques, conducting evaluation interviews with other parents, or writing evaluation findings. As evaluators, parent opinions provide a unique perspective because they are emotionally involved and may identify areas that educators miss. One obvious advantage of having parents help to evaluate the program is that they will publicize its successes and generate public support for the school.

## PROGRAM COORDINATION EVALUATION

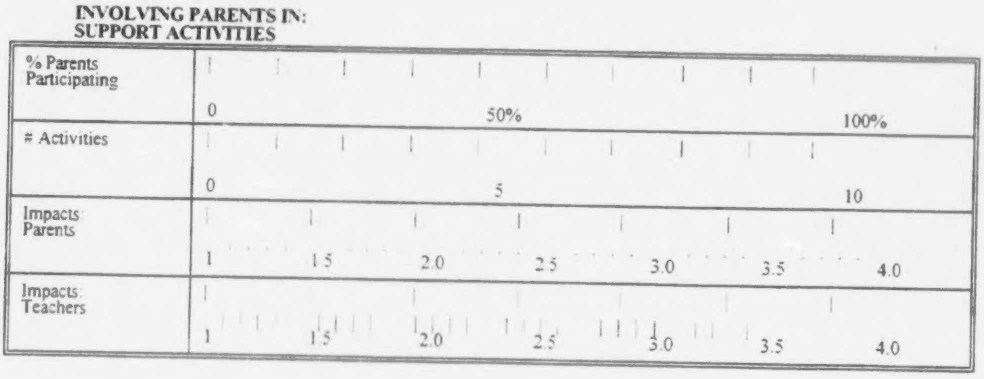
The overall bilingual education program and the parent-community program, in particular, should be evaluated. Most bilingual or ESL programs are required to submit annual progress reports to funding sources such as the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs (OBEMLA), U.S. Department of Education, which provides funds under Title VII, and the Transition Program for Refugee Children. Similarly, state funded programs such as DPPF also require school districts to submit annual reports. However, in additional to these formal documents, coordinators of bilingual programs should collect data that can be presented to the school board or superintendent to document the program's successes and justify requests for funding.

Surveys, logs, and written assessments are useful methods for collecting data. These should be compiled in such a way that they can be easily understood and presented in the form of a report to persons who desire the information. However, it should be stressed that ongoing monitoring is a primary function of the coordinator. In preparing final or quarterly reports, the coordinator should be up to date on the status of timelines and schedules so that major revisions or last minute problems can be avoided.

## EXTERNAL CONSULTANT EVALUATION

An external consultant who is skilled in program evaluation techniques can be contracted to review the program's operations and to make recommendations. Many school districts utilize consultant expertise in conducting their final annual evaluation. However, it might also be useful to bring in a consultant midway through the year to review the program's operation and to make recommendations for improvement before the year ends. Consultants should at that time be able to view actual operations and naturally, should have access to all files and documents.

### SAMPLE II: EVALUATION OF PARENT PARTICIPATION: RECORDING FORM[6]



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**PARENT EDUCATION**

| | |
|---|---|
| % Parents Participating | 0 50% 100% |
| % Targeted | 0 50% 100% |
| Impacts: Parents | 1 1.5 2.0 2.5 3.0 3.5 4.0 |

**HOME-BASED INSTRUCTION**

| | |
|---|---|
| 2 Parents Participating | 0 50% 100% |
| Impacts: Parents | 1 1.5 2.0 2.5 3.0 3.5 4.0 |
| Impacts: Teachers | 1 1.5 2.0 2.5 3.0 3.5 4.0 |

**INSTRUCTION AT SCHOOL**

| | |
|---|---|
| % Classrooms | 0 50% 100% |
| % Time on Instruction | 0 50% 100% |
| 2 Planning Instructions | 0 50% 100% |
| 2 Regular | 0 50% 100% |
| Impacts: Parents | 1 1.5 2.0 2.5 3.0 3.5 4.0 |
| Impacts: Teachers | 1 1.5 2.0 2.5 3.0 3.5 4.0 |

**ADVISORY GROUPS**

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Role: Curriculum | No involvement | Inform Only | Minor Role | Major Role |
| Role: Budget | No involvement | Inform Only | Minor Role | Major Role |
| Role: Personnel | No involvement | Inform Only | Minor Role | Major Role |
| Role: Parent Activities | No involvement | Inform Only | Minor Role | Major Role |

## SUMMARY

The intent of this publication was to provide guidelines for designing and implementing structured parent and community involvement in bilingual education and ESL programs. Strategies were provided for assessing school attitudes, parent needs and concerns; developing and implementing the program; and evaluating its effectiveness.

However, it must be noted that at the root of any successful parent involvement program lies the belief that language minority parents should be as involved in their children's education as the language majority population.

It is therefore crucial that the school take the leadership role in nurturing parent involvement among members of the language minority population:

"... All parents will get involved in school activities if there is a crisis. The trick is to get them involved in order that their voices band together in support of bilingual education, ESL activities, and other student services before a crisis arises. Ongoing activities that are personally rewarding will keep parents involved and on hand to prevent crises and get other parents involved..."[7]

# APPENDIX A: PROFILE OF OHIO PARENT-COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT PROGRAMS

## CINCINNATI CITY SCHOOLS

The Cincinnati City Schools, located in one of Ohio's major cities, enrolls over 100 limited English proficient (LEP) students per year. The majority of Cincinnati's LEP students are Indochinese refugees who have recently arrived in the United States.

The district receives funding though its general funds, under the Transition Program for Refugee Children, and through Title VII Bilingual Education. It has successfully implemented an extensive and multifaceted parent training program. The training program has several strands: a support component, an evaluation and observation aspect, and a cultural component.

Essentially, the district has a parent advisory council which acts in a facilitating role. However, parents also attend bimonthly tutorials at which they have the opportunity to express their concerns and to discuss issues of interest to them. Training needs were assessed through informal contact with parents, group assessment, and input from the advisory council. Meetings are publicized through a trilingual newsletter that is disseminated to parents, through notices that are sent home with students, and through home visits made by the resource teacher.

Some of the areas that have been addressed through tutorials include the goals and objectives of the program and of bilingual education/ESL programs in general, simple techniques for increasing reading readiness, health education, and cultural awareness. Support activities in which parents are engaged include developing and reviewing cultural materials, developing a parent training manual, and assisting with tutoring.

In an effort to involve parents in evaluating the program, the district encourages them to visit school sites and observe classroom practices throughout the year. Tutorial sessions also serve as an ongoing medium whereby parents can express their opinions and discuss concerns.

For further information, contact:

Dr. Myriam Met, Director
Cincinnati City Schools Language Program
230 East Ninth Street
Cincinnati, Ohio 45202
(513) 369-4999

## KETTERING CITY SCHOOLS

The Kettering City Schools located in the Ohio suburb of Kettering enrolls an average of 25-30 limited English proficient (LEP) students per school year. Many of Kettering's LEP students are Asian.

To address the student's limited English proficiency, one-to-one tutoring is provided to them and to their relatives by native English speaking volunteers drawn from the Kettering community. The volunteers are recruited through notices published in the district superintendent's newsletter and through personal contact.

Tutors receive fifteen hours each of intensive training in using the LAUBACH ESOL materials which form the basis of the ESL program. Training of volunteers is conducted by experienced school staff and a LAUBACH consultant.

Volunteers are selected based on their enthusiasm, availability, and commitment. However, 80 percent of the Kettering volun-teers have college degrees, while 50 percent are former teachers. All give their time for at least two sessions a week to provide one-to-one tutoring on a pull-out basis to LEP students.

The volunteers' performance is observed by the program director on an ongoing basis. Principals and classroom teachers also assist in observing the volunteers and the program director conducts interviews with individual students to determine the effectiveness of the tutoring. A reading test administered once per year is an additional source of information on the program's effectiveness.

For further information, contact:

Mr. Richard Bolar
Kettering City Schools
3490 Farhills Avenue
Kettering, Ohio 45429
(513) 296-7642

## YOUNGSTOWN CITY SCHOOLS

The purpose of the Youngstown City Schools' Bilingual Education Parent Involvement Program is to encourage parents of the LEP students to participate actively in all aspects of their children's education. Specific objectives are as follows:

1. To inform the parents about the objectives and activities of the bilingual program.
2. To inform parents about the progress of their children in the program.
3. To involve parents in the planning and evaluation of the program.
4. To organize a parent advisory committee to provide recommendations on program development.
5. To promote community involvement and input into school policies, practices, and programs.
6. To maintain contact between school staff, community organizations, and parents.
7. To assist the project director in communicating with community organizations and parents.
8. To identify community resources which can be utilized to improve the bilingual program.

Parents meet monthly with the parent-teacher liaison in their neighborhood schools to discuss the Title VII proposal, discipline problems, community services, parent-teacher conferences, grades, ESL classes for parents, drug and alcohol abuse, and employment. Community resource persons are brought in to discuss the various topics. All alks and handouts are translated into the parents' native language. Transportation is arranged, if necessary, through car pools. Seventy-three percent of the students' parents in the Title VII program attend the monthly meetings regularly.

The drug and alcohol abuse workshop has been so successful, that the parents meet weekly at the Hispanic Social Agency, and they plan to continue meeting throughout the summer. They meet with members of the local drug and alcohol clinic and local police officers to determine the steps they can take to reduce the serious problem in the community.

The parent-teacher liaison also meets with each parent, and together they meet with the children's teachers. As a group, plans are made for the education of the student with regard to grades, attendance, behavior, and future employment. Because parents are involved in the actual planning of their child's education, they hold an even greater stake in the outcome.

The bilingual program in Youngstown uses the total student approach to education by involving the parents, teachers, students, and community in the educational process.

For further information, contact:

Ms. Debbie Mettee, Coordinator
Bilingual Program
Youngstown City Schools
20 West Wood Street
P.O. Box 550
Youngstown, Ohio 44501
(216) 743-1151

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# WALTON HIGH SCHOOL
# BILINGUAL LANGUAGE ARTS
# SURVIVAL TRAINING
# 1983-1984
# OEA EVALUATION REPORT
## *(ED261138)*

New York City Public Schools
Office of Educational Assessment

Robert Tobias, Administrator of Evaluation
Judith Stern Torres, Senior Manager
1984

## A SUMMARY OF THE REPORT

This project, in its first year of a three-year funding cycle, provided instruction in English as a second language (E.S.L.) and native language arts, in addition to bilingual instruction in mathematics, science, social studies, typing, and career orientation to approximately 270 Spanish-speaking students of limited English proficiency in grades nine through twelve. Program participants were either recent arrivals from the Caribbean, Central America, and South America, or those who entered ninth and tenth grades from junior high schools not served by Title VII funds.

Project BLAST was designed and implemented as a transitional program. In addition, it emphasized students' integration with society at large. The program's goals were shared by both the program staff and school administration.

Title VII and tax-levy funds supported administrative and supportive services staff positions; teaching costs were supported by tax levy and other sources. Parents were involved in their children's learning process through participation in the Parent-Student Advisory Committee, school activities, and courses offered to the community by the school. Program staff members provided E.S.L. classes for parents and community members and a forum for their participation. Development activities for staff members included monthly department meetings and attendance at in-house and outside workshops, professional conferences, and university courses. Original curricula and materials were developed in history and E.S.L. career exploration and orientation. In addition, a unit on citizenship was incorporated into the social studies curriculum and materials were adapted for the science, mathematics, and Spanish curricula. Supportive services were provided to program students in the form of personal and academic counseling, career and college advisement, tutoring, and referrals to outside services.

Program objectives were assessed in English language development (New York City Fluency Scale, teacher-made examinations, and the Criterion Referenced English Syntax Test); mastery of the native language (teacher-made tests, New York City-Wide Spanish Examination, and New York State Regents Examination); mathematics, science, and social studies (teacher-made tests); vocational courses (teacher-made tests); and attendance (school and program records). Quantitative analysis of student achievement data indicates that:

- Most program students manifested improved oral/aural English language skills on the New York City Fluency Scale
- The yearly average passing rate for students in E.S.L. classes was 72 percent
- Students mastered an average of 1.62 CREST objectives in the fall and 1.16 CREST objectives in the spring, thus meeting the program objectives in this area
- Program students demonstrated overall passing rates of 95 percent (fall) and 98 percent (spring) on both the city-wide and Regents examinations in Spanish
- On department-made Spanish examinations, students achieved overall passing rates of 88 and 80 percent in the fall and spring, respectively
- In native language arts classes, students met the program objective in the fall (81 percent passing) but not in the spring (64 percent)

- Overall passing rates in mathematics, science, and social studies courses were quite similar for both program and mainstream students
- Overall passing rates in elective career courses were high, except for a small group of students enrolled in fall keypunching classes
- The attendance rate of program students was statistically significantly higher than the attendance rate of the school as a whole

The following recommendations are aimed at improving the overall effectiveness of the program

- The proposed health careers and computer literacy components still need to be developed
- If funding were to permit, attempts should be made to secure the services of a bilingual program counselor who would address the needs of program students in the areas of personal counseling, career decision-making, and college admission
- The school guidance office might provide for the follow-up of program students once they are mainstreamed to assure their success and to assess the effectiveness of program services in preparing students for mainstream classes
- The program should make a concerted effort to recruit a certified bilingual mathematics teacher
- A few school faculty members are still unaware of the requirements of a bilingual curriculum and the capabilities of its recipients. The program might consider holding workshops for project and schoolwide staff to address these issues.

# BILINGUAL LANGUAGE ARTS SURVIVAL TRAINING
# PROJECT BLAST
# WALTON HIGH SCHOOL

| | |
|---|---|
| Location: | West 196th Street and Reservoir Avenue<br>Bronx, New York 10468 |
| Year: | 1983-1984, first year of a three-year cycle |
| Target Language: | Spanish |
| Number of Students: | 270 |
| Assistant Principal: | Mrs. S. Sellinger |
| Project Coordinator: | Ms. Norma Cruz-Dunn |

## I. INTRODUCTION

Although Project BLAST is in its first year of funding at Walton High School, bilingual education projects have been in operation at this site for a number of years. These projects have been evaluated by the Office of Educational Assessment. Therefore, the reader is directed to the 1982-83 evaluation of the Bilingual Basic Skills Through Interdisciplinary Career Orientation Program at Walton for details related to the attendance area, the characteristics and environment of the school, as well as the history of the school's services to students of limited English proficiency (LEP) that are not included in this report.

The focus of this report will be the organization of the new bilingual program, the characteristics of the student population being served, and the extent to which the program achieved its proposed instructional and non-instructional objectives.

## II. STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS

Walton is a non-zoned school whose student body comes primarily from low-income families. Of the total school register (3,413), approximately 64 percent are eligible for either free or reduced price lunch. Only 18 percent of the students tested are at or above grade level in reading and 23 percent in mathematics. Ethnically and racially, they are mostly Hispanic and black. Table 1 presents the ethnic composition of the school population in spring, 1984. Approximately eight percent of the school population are of limited English proficiency (LEP).

### Table 1
### Ethnic Composition of Students in the School

| Ethnicity/Race | Number | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Black | 1,806 | 53 |
| Hispanic | 1,446 | 42 |
| Asian | 122 | 4 |
| White | 36 | 1 |
| TOTAL | 3,410 | 100 |

Project BLAST served approximately 270 Hispanic LEP students during its first year of funding. These students were either recent arrivals from the Caribbean, Central America, and South America, or those who entered ninth and tenth grades from junior high schools not served by Title VII funds. Students were placed in the bilingual program as a result of individual interviews, transcript evaluations, and scores below the twenty-first percentile on the Language Assessment Battery (LAB).

Most of the program students (55 percent) were born in Puerto Rico. Twenty-one percent are from the Dominican Republic. Table 2 presents program students (for whom information was reported) by country of birth. Most program students were female. Female students outnumber male students in all grades (see Table 3). This may result from the fact that Walton was an all-girl school until five years ago. Table 4 presents the distribution of students by age and grade, and Table 5 by the amount of time they have spent in the program.

### Table 2
### Number and Percent of Program Students by Country of Birth

| Country of Birth | Number | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Puerto Rico | 148 | 55 |
| Dominican Republic | 58 | 21 |
| Cuba | 2 | Less than 1 |
| Mexico | 1 | Less than 1 |
| Honduras | 7 | 3 |
| Guatemala | 5 | 2 |
| El Salvador | 2 | Less than 1 |
| Nicaragua | 7 | 3 |
| Panama | 4 | 2 |
| Colombia | 22 | 8 |
| Ecuador | 2 | Less than 1 |
| Argentina | 1 | Less than 1 |
| United States | 5 | 2 |
| TOTAL | 259 | 100 |

- The majority of program students were born in Puerto Rico (55 percent).
- Twenty-one percent of the students were born in the Dominican Republic.

### Table 3
### Number and Percent of Program Students by Sex and Grade

| Grade | Number Male Students | Percent of Grade | Number Female Students | Percent of Grade | Total Number | Percent of All Students |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 9 | 29 | 37 | 50 | 63 | 79 | 31 |
| 10 | 28 | 35 | 51 | 65 | 79 | 31 |
| 11 | 13 | 20 | 52 | 80 | 65 | 25 |
| 12 | 8 | 24 | 25 | 76 | 33 | 13 |
| TOTAL | 78 | 30[a] | 178 | 70[a] | 256 | 100 |

[a] Percent of program students.

- The majority of program students are female. Female students outnumber males at each grade level.
- The number of program students decreases as the grade level increases.

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## Table 4
## Number of Program Students by Age and Grade

| Age | Grade 9 | Grade 10 | Grade 11 | Grade 12 | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 14 | **9** | 0 | 0 | 0 | 9 |
| 15 | **25** | **18** | 3 | 0 | 46 |
| 16 | 23 | **28** | **14** | 0 | 65 |
| 17 | 14 | 18 | **25** | 5 | 62 |
| 18 | 7 | 13 | 17 | **15** | 53 |
| 19 | 1 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 12 |
| 20 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 5 | 6 |
| 21 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 2 |
| TOTAL | 79 | 79 | 64 | 33 | 255 |
| Overage Students | | | | | |
| Number | 45 | 33 | 22 | 12 | 112 |
| Percent | 57 | 42 | 34 | 36 | 44 |

Note: Shaded boxes indicate expected age range for grade.

- * Forty-four percent of the program students are overage for their grade.
- * The highest percentage of overage students is in grade nine (57 percent).

## Table 5
## Time Spent in the Bilingual Program[a]
## (As of June 1984)

| Time Spent in Bilingual Program | Grade 9 | Grade 10 | Grade 11 | Grade 12 | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number of Students | | | | |
| <1 Academic Year | 13 | 13 | 7 | 9 | 42 |
| 1 Academic Year | 70 | 69 | 59 | 24 | 222 |
| 2 Academic Years[a] | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 3 Academic Years[b] | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| TOTAL | 83 | 82 | 67 | 34 | 266 |

[a] Rounded to the nearest year.

[b] Refers to participation in previous bilingual program.

- * Two hundred sixty-four (99 percent) students reported were in the program for one year or less. Only two students had participated in a bilingual program prior to Project BLAST.
- * Forty-two (16 percent) students entered program during the course of the year.

# III. PROGRAM DESCRIPTION

## Program Philosophy

Project BLAST was designed as a transitional program emphasizing students' integration with society at large. Transition is viewed not just in linguistic terms but also in terms of mainstream cultural, career, and citizenship awareness. The goals of the program are shared by both the program staff and the school administration.

## Organization and Structure

The bilingual program has been administered cooperatively by the assistant principals (A.P.s) of foreign language/English as a second language (E.S.L.) and of each subject area. Bilingual content-area teachers have been supervised by the A.P.s of their respective content-area departments. The staff feels that this structure contributed to a breakdown in communication and resulted in conflicts over the implementation of the program. Consequently, the decision has been made to centralize the bilingual program as of September 1984, so that all instructional staff members would be under the supervision of the A.P. for foreign language/E.S.L. Transitional E.S.L. classes, however, would remain the responsibility of the A.P. of the English department.

The principal holds frequent meetings with the A.P. in charge of the program who, in turn, meets daily with the program coordinator. The principal monitors program policies, reviews courses of study, and reviews exams.

The program coordinator implements policy, supervises program staff, and is responsible for fiscal management.

The Title VII staff consists of one curriculum specialist/resource teacher, one family worker, three paraprofessionals, and one secretary. Teacher positions are supported by tax levy and other sources. Table 6 details funding sources for the program's non-instructional component.

## Staff Characteristics

The instructional staff serving project students is made up of seven E.S.L. teachers, one E.S.L./Native Language Arts (N.L.A.) teacher, two Spanish/N.L.A. teachers, two mathematics teachers, one bilingual general science/biology/chemistry teacher, two general science teachers, and one bilingual and one monolingual social studies teacher. Most of the staff members were certified in the subjects they were teaching. An area of concern expressed by both the principal and the project coordinator, was the lack of certified bilingual mathematics teachers. Of the two mathematics teachers assigned to the project, one was a monolingual English speaker certified in math; the other was certified in high school Spanish.

**Table 6**
**Funding of Non-Instructional Program Components**

| Function | Funding Source(s) | Title |
|---|---|---|
| Administrative and Supervision | Tax Levy<br>Title VII | A.P. Supervision (20%)<br>Project Coordinator |
| Curriculum Development | Title VII | Bilingual Curriculum/Resource Teacher |
| Support Services | Title VII<br>Tax Levy | Bilingual Family Worker<br>Bilingual Guidance Counselor |
| Staff Development | Title VII<br>Title VII | Project Coordinator<br>Curriculum/Resource Teacher |
| Parental and Community Involvement | Title VII<br>Title VII<br>Title VII | Project Coordinator Curriculum/Resource Teacher<br>Family Worker |
| Secretarial and Clerical Services | Title VII | Bilingual Secretary Intern |

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# IV. FINDINGS

The evaluation findings are presented by program objectives. They include the results of student performance in courses and tests, reviews of program materials and records, interviews with relevant personnel, and classroom observations.

English Language Objectives

- As a result of participating in Project BLAST, by the end of the first year, at least 75 percent of program students will achieve a gain in total raw score as measured by the Basic Inventory of Natural Language (BINL)
- Seventy-five percent of program students will improve English reading skills and will advance one level higher in the English as a second language sequence
- The project students will master an average of one objective per 20 days of instruction on the Criterion Referenced English Syntax Test (CREST)

English as a second language (E.S.L.) instruction is offered by the foreign language/E.S.L. department in a four-year sequence. E.S.L. 2 and 4 (elementary-intermediate) are supplemented by tax-levy E.S.L./career exploration and orientation classes. E.S.L. 6 through 8, offered by the English department, are transitional courses intended to prepare students for the mainstream English curriculum.

A member of the evaluation team observed a double-period elementary E.S.L. class. The class was small (20 students registered/13 present) and a paraprofessional assisted the teacher with clerical matters, individual questions, and interpreting. The students all seemed to be placed appropriately, as evidenced by their eager participation and ability to perform lesson-related tasks. The primary language used was English except for some interaction among the students which was in Spanish.

The E.S.L. career classes are designed to offer ninth- and tenth-year students basic career orientation and exploration while developing listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills in English. The ultimate goal is for students to choose a career and/or find a job.

A member of the evaluation team observed one such class. It included 17 students and was taught primarily in English. Spanish was used only when necessary for concept clarification. The focus of the lesson was on vocabulary, comprehension, and writing English using written materials about computer-related careers.

Student Achievement in English

English Language Fluency. According to the original program objectives, the Basic Inventory of Natural Language (BINL) was to be administered in order to measure students' growth in oral English fluency. However, the program objectives were changed to allow for the use of the New York City Fluency Scale which measures receptive (aural) and expressive (oral) modes of fluency on a seven-point scale. Students were pre- and post-tested and gain scores were computed. Data were available for 267 of the 270 program students. On the receptive scale, 81 percent of the students improved at least one level, including seven percent who improved two scale levels. On the expressive scale, 62 percent of the pupils improved at least one level, including six percent who improved two levels. Since the New York City Fluency Scale was not included in the original evaluation design, there is no criterion by which to judge these results and, therefore, to make a conclusive statement about the attainment of program objectives. However, most program students demonstrated improvement in oral/aural English language skills and, as is generally the case, showed greater progress in the receptive than in the expressive mode.

Program objectives called for 75 percent of program students to advance one level in the E.S.L. sequence. This objective was tested by computing passing rates for students enrolled in E.S.L. courses. These results, reported in Table 7, indicate overall passing rates of 78 percent in the fall semester and 66 percent in the spring term. Thus the second English language objective was met only in the fall semester.

### Table 7
### Number of Students Enrolled in E.S.L. Courses and Percent Passing Teacher-Made Examinations

| E.S.L. Level | Total Number of Students | Percent Passing |
|---|---|---|
| | **Fall** | |
| E.S.L. 1 | 91 | 76 |
| E.S.L. 2 | 68 | 81 |
| E.S.L. 3 | 61 | 77 |
| E.S.L. 4 | 16 | 100 |
| E.S.L. 5 | 12 | 58 |
| **TOTAL** | **248** | **78** |
| | **Spring** | |
| E.S.L. 1 | 62 | 65 |
| E.S.L. 2 | 83 | 67 |
| E.S.L. 3 | 64 | 64 |
| E.S.L. 4 | 20 | 70 |
| E.S.L. 5 | 4 | 50 |
| **TOTAL** | **233** | **66** |

- The program objective was met in the fall semester.
- At all E.S.L. levels, overall passing rates declined from fall to spring.
- In the fall and spring, students in E.S.L. 4 achieved the highest passing rates: students in 5 E.S.L. achieved the lowest passing rates.

Acquisition of English Syntax. The program objective in this area called for the acquisition of one CREST objective per 20 days of instruction. Complete CREST data were available for 168 students in the fall and 143 students in the spring semester, 63 percent and 53 percent of the program students, respectively.

CREST results presented in Table 8 show that students acquired an average of 1.6 objectives per month in the fall and 1.2 objectives per month in the spring, thus meeting the program objective.

### Table 8
### Results of the Criterion Referenced English Syntax Test
### (Program Students Pre- and Post-Tested on Same Test Level)

| Test Level | Number Students | Average Number of Objectives Mastered | | Objectives Mastered[a] | Average Months of Treatment | Objectives Mastered Per Month |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Pre | Post | | | |
| | | | | **Fall** | | |
| I | 65 | 10.2 | 16.0 | 5.8 | 2.6 | 2.3 |
| II | 49 | 13.9 | 18.7 | 4.8 | 2.7 | 1.7 |
| III | 54 | 9.9 | 11.8 | 1.9 | 2.7 | 0.7 |
| **TOTAL** | **168** | **11.2** | **15.4** | **4.2** | **2.7** | **1.6** |
| | | | **Spring** | | | |
| I | 43 | 10.0 | 14.7 | 4.7 | 2.8 | 1.7 |
| II | 54 | 14.3 | 17.6 | 3.3 | 2.9 | 1.1 |
| III | 46 | 8.6 | 10.7 | 2.1 | 3.0 | 0.7 |
| **TOTAL** | **143** | **11.2** | **14.5** | **3.3** | **2.9** | **1.2** |

[a] Post-test minus pre-test

- In both the fall and spring, students surpassed the program objective with overall mastery rates exceeding one CREST objective per month.
- Level III students did not meet the objective. See Acquisition of English Syntax, page 15, for possible explanations.

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Students tested on Levels I and II both semesters exceeded the proposed standard. The lower achievement indicated for Level III students (0.7 objectives per month), was due in part to the test's ceiling effects. That is, some students who scored at a level close to maximum on the pre-test were restricted in the possibility to demonstrate gains.

It could also be due to the fact that to achieve gains at Level III similar to those at Levels I and II, a much more complex level of language development must be reached. The level of difficulty required to master one objective on the test at Level III may be too high to be achievable by program students within the stipulated time of instruction. The proposed program objective assumes that student progress on the CREST is linear across levels; students' performance at Level III suggests that it is not.

## NATIVE LANGUAGE OBJECTIVES

- Eighty percent of students in Level I Spanish will pass a teacher-made final examination; 90 percent of students in Level II Spanish will pass a New York City City-Wide Examination in Spanish; 90 percent of students in Level III Spanish will pass a New York State Regents Examination.
- Seventy-five percent of the students will pass course work in their native language arts class or Spanish class.

Project BLAST students tend to be highly proficient in Spanish. Each term there was need for only one remedial native language arts (N.L.A.) class: N.L.A. 3 in the fall and N.L.A. 4 in the spring. Most program students were in advanced classes, Spanish 5 through 10, which had nine sections each semester.

### Student Achievement in Native Language Arts

Measures for the achievement of the program objective in native language included the city-wide and regents examinations. The city-wide exams are administered only to students taking Spanish 4 and regents only to those taking Spanish 6. Twenty students took these tests in the fall and 40 took them in the spring. Students for whom data were reported had passing rates of 95 percent in the fall and 98 percent in the spring and thus met the program objective. Data were also available on the number of students passing departmental final exams. The results (see Table 9) indicate that students had passing rates of 88 percent in the fall and 80 percent in the spring. The program did not set a criterion by which to judge results on these tests.

Table 9
Student Achievement on Department-Developed Spanish Examinations

| | Grade 9 | | Grade 10 | | Grade 11 | | Grade 12 | | Total | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Semester | N | Percent Passing | N | Percent Passing | N | Percent Passing | N | Percent Passing | N | Percent Passing |
| Fall | 74 | 84 | 76 | 88 | 62 | 92 | 32 | 91 | 246 | 88 |
| Spring | 70 | 59 | 71 | 89 | 60 | 87 | 21 | 100 | 223 | 80 |

* Passing rates were generally high, except for ninth grade in the spring.
* Overall, there was an increase in the proportion of students passing as grade increased.

Another program goal for native language achievement was that 75 percent of the students taking Spanish would pass. These results are presented in Table 10. The objective was met and exceeded in the fall (81 percent) but not in the spring (64 percent).

Table 10
Native Language Achievement
Number of Students Enrolled in Courses and Percent Passing Teacher-Made Examinations

| | Grade 9 | | Grade 10 | | Grade 11 | | Grade 12 | | Total | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Course | N | Percent Passing | N | Percent Passing | N | Percent Passing | N | Percent Passing | N | Percent Passing |
| All Spanish Courses Fall | 83 | 72 | 82 | 80 | 67 | 87 | 34 | 88 | 266 | 81 |
| All Spanish Courses Spring | 83 | 45 | 82 | 73 | 66 | 79 | 34 | 62 | 265 | 64 |

* Student performance in Spanish classes declined from the fall to the spring.
*Ninth-grade students achieved the lowest passing rate (45 percent) in the spring, whereas twelfth graders achieved the highest passing rate (88 percent) in the fall.

## CONTENT-AREA OBJECTIVE

- The percentage of program students passing bilingual mathematics, science, and social studies classes will be on a par statistically with the percentage passing school-wide uniform examinations in mainstream classes on a comparable level.

A member of the evaluation team observed a general biology class for bilingual students chosen by the program director and a comparable mainstream general biology class chosen by the chair of the science department. In the bilingual biology class, the lesson was taught in Spanish with English used at the end of the lesson for vocabulary development. A paraprofessional checked homework, answered questions in Spanish, and performed clerical tasks.

In a comparison of the two classes, the observer noted the following:

- Bilingual students were better prepared for class discussion than mainstream students
- More information was covered in the bilingual class
- Bilingual students were more active participants in the lesson than mainstream students
- Bilingual students were much better behaved and more attentive than mainstream students
- The bilingual students' native language skills seemed more advanced than the English skills of the mainstream class

### Content-Area Achievement

The program's design called for a comparison of passing rates in mathematics, science, and social studies classes between bilingual and mainstream students. It was anticipated that these two groups would have equivalent passing rates. The statistical method used to test this hypothesis was a z-test[1] for the differences between two independent proportions. Table 11 presents student performance in mathematics, science, and social studies courses by semester. Also included in the same table are z-values, which indicate whether the difference between the passing rates for the two groups is statistically significant.

The program objective was achieved. Passing rates for the two groups were quite similar in almost all cases. The only exceptions were for science and social studies courses in the spring semester. Bilingual students achieved a statistically significant higher passing rate than mainstream students in science courses in the spring, while mainstream students enrolled in social studies courses in the spring term achieved higher passing rates than bilingual students.

**Table 11**
**Passing Rates for Content-Area Courses 1983-84**

| Content Area | Bilingual N | Bilingual Percent Passing | Mainstream N | Mainstream Percent Passing | z |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | **Fall** | | |
| Math | 67 | 38 | 147 | 32 | .87 |
| Science | 62 | 55 | 309 | 51 | .58 |
| Social Studies | 102 | 72 | 96 | 69 | .63 |
| | | | **Spring** | | |
| Math | 123 | 44 | 1,010 | 45 | .21 |
| Science | 103 | 64 | 461 | 54 | 1.85* |
| Social Studies | 100 | 60 | 640 | 77 | 3.63** |

* Statistically significant at .05 level
** Statistically significant at .01 level

- Student enrollment in mathematics and science courses increased from the fall to the spring.
- For both bilingual and mainstream students, overall passing rates in the three areas increased from the fall to the spring (except for social studies students in the spring).
- Both groups had the lowest passing rates in mathematics.
- The major difference found between bilingual and mainstream students' passing rates was in social studies in the spring: mainstream students achieved significantly higher passing rates.

## CAREER OBJECTIVE

- Program students' awareness of careers and survival/life skills will be increased by 80 percent

The basic required and elective courses designed to prepare students to meet high school graduation standards were supplemented by the following elective courses: typing, business machines, bookkeeping/accounting, data processing, clerical record keeping, and career orientation and exploration. During the academic year, two of the 23 sections of typing offered were bilingual classes serving 43 program students. The other courses enrolling bilingual students were data processing (35), business machines (12), regular typing (30), and bookkeeping/accounting (9).

## Student Achievement in Elective Career Courses

This objective cannot be evaluated as stated since it does not specify a measure. However data were reported for 132 students enrolled in career courses in the fall and 41 students in the spring. As seen in Table 12, overall passing rates were high, except for a small group of students enrolled in keypunching classes in the fall.

**Table 12**
**Percent of Students Passing Elective Career Courses**

| | Fall | | Spring | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Course | Number of Students | Percent Passing | Number of Students | Percent Passing |
| Career Orientation | 78 | 69 | -- | -- |
| Typing | 25 | 80 | 11 | 91 |
| Office Machines | 10 | 90 | -- | -- |
| Clerical Record Keeping | 8 | 88 | 1 | 100 |
| Accounting | 3 | 100 | 1 | 100 |
| Keypunching | 8 | 50 | 4 | 75 |
| Other Business | -- | -- | 24 | 67 |

## NON-INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

- Seventy percent of the incoming first-year students will become involved in class, department, school, and community activities.

Program students are actively involved in the bilingual club, school activities, teams, and special holiday programs. They also publish a newsletter which is disseminated throughout the school and sent to alumni.

The program has managed to maintain student involvement even though Hispanic parents on the whole are reportedly resistant to students being involved in activities outside the home. The program, contrary to a city-wide Hispanic drop-out rate of over 50 percent, has a low rate of attrition. In addition, disciplinary problems among program students are reported to be very few.

Another indication of how positively students feel toward the program and its staff is that students approach bilingual program staff very frequently to discuss problems and get information. The staff seems to be successful in getting the students to come to school and in holding their interest. This is a necessary prerequisite to learning, and is something that Walton's Project BLAST seems to accomplish.

Based on activity attendance records, teacher and staff comments, and personal observation, the evaluation team believes that this objective was being met.

- Student awareness of the cultural pluralism of the United States, of career opportunities, and of the value of citizenship will be increased through the activity of four educational field trips.

Records indicated that two trips (one to the Museum of Natural History, the other to a session of the state legislature in Albany) had been taken during the school year. A member of the evaluation team met with students and discussed their trips. Their responses indicated an awareness of the value of citizenship and career/college opportunities. However, this objective cannot be measured with the data that are available.

- The average daily attendance of program students will be five percent better than students in the mainstream (non-program students).

**Table 13**
**Attendance Percentages of Program Students**

| Grade | Number of Students | Attendance Percentage | Standard Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|
| 9 | 67 | 82.00 | 15.15 |
| 10 | 69 | 88.16 | 12.92 |
| 11 | 60 | 90.28 | 7.53 |
| 12 | 24 | 90.00 | 7.72 |
| **TOTAL** | **220** | **87.04** | **12.43** |

* Eleventh and twelfth graders had the highest attendance rates.

Attendance rates for program students are presented in Table 13 by grade. The program attendance rate (87 percent) was 10 percentage points higher than the school-wide attendance rate (77 percent). A z-test ($z$=4.46) for the significance of a proportion indicated that the difference in attendance rates is statistically significant. Thus, the program objective was met.

- As a result of their children participating in Project BLAST, parental involvement in regularly scheduled meetings will be 10 percent higher than non-project parents

- Monthly meetings of the program's Advisory Committee will be attended by a minimum of seven parents, two students, one bilingual teacher, the coordinator, and the resource/curriculum teacher

- Ten workshops for parents of participating students in E.S.L. will be held

- Parents of participating students will be contacted twice per term by mail, phone, or home visit by the guidance counselor or family assistant. This will be in addition to the issuance of three report cards per term

Parents are involved in the learning process of the students through participation in monthly meetings of the Parent-Student Advisory Committee (P-SAC), school activities, and courses offered to the community by the school. Program staff members provide E.S.L. classes once a week for parents and community members. They also provide monthly sessions in which school procedures and activities are discussed.

There is constant communication with the students and parents. Family contacts include daily phone calls, weekly mailings, and home visits as necessary.

Although limited by such factors as job responsibilities, travel distance, and neighborhood safety, rosters of meetings and activities show consistent parental involvement. These activities are said to encourage academic achievement and promote a high rate of attendance among the bilingual students.

Records of Open School Visitation meetings, P-SAC meetings, and program activities all indicate that the program is working toward meeting its objective. An average of five parents attended each P-SAC meeting; students were not always present.

- School personnel will participate in two interdisciplinary workshops each semester.

- Staff members will enroll in courses at accredited colleges in bilingual education or related fields

The bilingual program staff appears to be one of the significant factors contributing to program success. Staff members are dedicated, competent, and eager to continue to learn. This is evidenced by their pursuit of higher levels of education and participation in the on-going staff development provided at the school.

- Curricula and resource materials will be developed, revised, or updated to meet the program's needs

The resource specialist is constantly involved in researching and developing new course curricula and materials. Original curricula and materials were developed this year as proposed in history and E.S.L. career exploration and orientation. Materials were developed in Spanish for both of these areas. In addition, a unit on citizenship was incorporated into the social studies curriculum.

The citizenship unit was expanded to include field trips to historic and government sites. These trips were well attended and students participated eagerly in the discussions which followed each trip. The materials have contributed to the teaching of English with a focus other than language exclusively. The regular E.S.L. classes have been enriched by the incorporation of career exploration and orientation activities such as career awareness and job-related office procedures. Students are learning English language skills and acquiring basic survival skills necessary for their adjustment to a new culture and society.

Materials have also been adapted for the science, mathematics, and Spanish curriculum. All materials produced are parallel to mainstream materials and are presently in use. Some of these materials are now located in the school's bilingual section of the library because the program's resource center is no longer large enough to hold all of its materials.

- There will be a newsletter describing the project's activities issued at least four times during the 1983-84 school year

According to the coordinator, this objective has been met. However, the evaluation team did not review all four copies of the newsletter.

## ADDITIONAL FINDINGS

Although not a program objective, the project coordinator supplied an extensive list of the supportive services offered to program students. Programming and academic counseling is scheduled twice each term for each student with the bilingual guidance counselor. In addition, the guidance counselor works very closely with the program office concerning mainstreaming decisions. However, most advising, information sharing, and personal counseling is occurring in the program office with the program staff.

Although admittedly weak in the area of college advisement, the program staff feels that they are doing a better job than the guidance department. Everyone, from administrators to students, indicated that there was a need for services in this area. According to the family worker, more follow up is also needed for mainstreamed students.

The program's evaluation design included the administration of a cultural attitude scale on a pre-/post-test basis to assess change in cultural attitudes as a result of program treatment. However, the program did not administer it due to the unavailability of a satisfactory instrument.

## V. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### CONCLUSIONS

Based on observations, interviews, and analysis of student achievement data, it is evident that Project BLAST is meeting most of its objectives for its first year of operation. Program students appear to be closer to receiving an equal educational opportunity than if they were not in the program. In the instructional areas, the one issue of concern to both program and school administration is student performance in mathematics. This seems to be an area in need of strengthening for the entire school, in both mainstream and bilingual programs.

In the non-instructional component, the program staff is attempting to address students' needs for career information and guidance. All staff members agreed that program students would benefit from additional services in these areas. Course examinations and curricular unit notes have been translated, adapted, and obtained for placement in the resource center. Curricula have been originally developed or adapted for history, social studies, and E.S.L./career classes. A need still exists for the development of health careers and computer literacy curricula which the program proposed as long-term objectives.

Administrators are concerned about the efficacy of the program's organization, particularly the decentralized administration and supervision of Project BLAST by the assistant principals in each subject area. However, according to the school principal, the entire bilingual program will be under the supervision of the assistant principal for foreign languages/ E.S.L. as of September 1984. This change is expected to centralize decision-making, to facilitate the attainment of program objectives, and to improve program-school relations.

### RECOMMENDATIONS

On the basis of several site visits, both bilingual and mainstream classroom observations, and interviews with administrators, teachers, and students, the following is recommended for possible program improvement:

- Given the program's accomplishments in curriculum development, it might now concentrate on developing curricula in two areas proposed as long-term goals: health careers and computer literacy. These areas would enrich the curriculum, and expand students' opportunities for ultimate career choices.
- If funding permits, the program might secure the services of a bilingual program counselor to supplement the activities of the school bilingual guidance counselor. The program counselor would specifically address the needs of program students in personal counseling, career decision-making, and college advisement. The program would profit greatly from additional resources to enhance students' opportunities to reach a college campus or a productive job upon graduation.
- The school guidance office might provide for the follow-up of mainstreamed students to trace their progress and assess the effectiveness of program services in preparing students for mainstream classes.
- The program needs to recruit a certified bilingual mathematics teacher or offer re-training for those individuals working outside their area of expertise.
- Although the program reorganization is expected to improve program-school relations, there are a few school faculty members who need to be made aware of the requirements of a bilingual curriculum and the capabilities of its recipients. The program might consider holding workshops for project and school-wide staff to address these topics.

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1. Bruning, James L. and Kintz, B.L., Computational Handbook of Statistics, 1968

# AN ANALYSIS OF ESL/BILINGUAL EDUCATION POLICY IN OREGON SCHOOL DISTRICTS

*(ED296588)*

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## INTRODUCTION

Currently there is a national policy debate on the issue of appropriate educational programs for language minority students. Equal educational opportunity for language minority students is not merely the establishment of equal access to facilities, or even to equal treatment. In fact, equity is available to linguistic minorities only when their instructional treatment is different than the regular instructional program, as enunciated in the Lau v. Nichols Supreme Court decision (1974).

> There is no equality of treatment merely by providing students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers and curriculum. (Lau v. Nichols, 1974, p. 566)

A large body of research has accumulated in the last decade identifying appropriate educational treatment for language minorities. In addition, extensive legislation and case law has addressed equal educational opportunity issues for these students.

Oregon law requires that schools provide equal educational opportunity for their students.

> Each district school board shall adopt written policies, and the school district shall maintain plans and programs, which assure equality of educational opportunity for all students. (OAR 581-21-505)

If school districts' policies, plans, and programs are to assure equal educational opportunity to linguistic minorities through appropriate treatment, then that treatment needs to be defined. It would seem that both research-based educational principles and legal mandates should form the basis for school district policies and programs for linguistic minorities. Yet intense controversy surrounds the issue of what is appropriate educational treatment from bilingual education advocates, to proponents of the submersion ("sink-or-swim") method of teaching limited-English proficient (LEP) students.

An analysis of local school districts' ESL/bilingual education policies provides useful information for school administrators as to whether their policies, plans, and programs do assure equal educational opportunity for all language minority students.

## Importance of the Study

This study is the first in Oregon to document ESL/bilingual education policies statewide and to analyze them in terms of their propensity to provide equal educational opportunity to language minorities. The focus on implementation results in a greater understanding of administrative structures, processes, and behaviors involved in this area.

The study is pertinent to educators at the district level, by providing information that may assist them in moving their programs toward legal compliance and quality education for language minority students. It is relevant to educators and legislators at the state level in alerting them to the need for more consistency and quality in ESL/bilingual programs throughout the state.

The study provides a model for other statewide studies, where state officials wish to know the status of equal educational opportunity for language minority students in their schools.

## Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to document ESL/bilingual policies in local school districts in Oregon, and analyze the implementation of these policies in terms of their contribution to equal educational opportunity and quality education for language minority students.

## Theoretical Framework

This study adopts policy analysis as a frame of reference because of its potential as a synthesizing paradigm for studies in educational administration (Boyan, 1981). Boyd and Immegart (1979) advocate policy analysis as a unifying approach for research in educational administration.

Policy research us a form of applied research that is decision oriented, in that its intent is to "produce information that will aid in making more rational choices among competing courses of action" (Haller & Strike, 1979, p. 229). This type of research fits the dynamic nature of educational research and meets the need for applicability of research findings.

The ESL/bilingual policies of school districts are examined here in the framework of the Policy Process Model (Brewer & DeLeon, 1983; Heflin, 1978; Jones, 1977). Jones visualizes this model in eleven stages: perception/definition, aggregation, organization, representation, agenda setting, formulation, legitimization, budgeting, implementation, evaluation, and adjustment/termination. Brewer lists six stages: initiation, estimation, selection, implementation, evaluation, and termination. Heflin (1978, 1981) defines three broad phases which parallel the more narrowly described stages of Brewer and Jones. Table I demonstrates how the three models fit into the over-arching concept.

**Table I**
**The Policy Process Model**

| Heflin | Brewer | Jones |
|---|---|---|
| Policy Formulation: | Initiation<br>Estimation<br>Selection | Perception/Definition<br>Aggregation<br>Organization<br>Representation<br>Agenda Setting<br>Formulation |
| Policy Implementation: | Implementation | Implementation |
| Policy Impact: | Evaluation<br>Termination | Evaluation<br>Adjustment/Termination |

The research questions are tied to the three phases of the Policy Process Model, as described by Heflin (1978): policy formulation phase, policy implementation phase, and policy impact phase.

Policy Formulation Phase

1. What is the current status of ESL/bilingual educational policy in Oregon school districts?

Policy Implementation Phase

2. What are the structures and procedures which guide ESL/bilingual policy in the areas of: (a) identification and assessment, (b) instructional programs, (c) primary language usage, (d) exiting and mainstreaming, (e) recognition of minority group cultures, (f) parental involvement, (g) personnel requirements, and (h) program evaluation?

Policy Impact Phase

3. Are local school districts ESL/bilingual education policies in apparent compliance with the laws regarding equal educational opportunity for language minority students?

4. Are local school districts' ESL/bilingual education policies in concurrence with basic principles for effectively educating language minority students?

In order to answer these research questions, this paper first reviews the literature regarding appropriate educational treatment for language minority students, including research-based, basic principles for effectively educating LEP students, and a summary of federal and state legal requirements that promote equal educational opportunity for language minorities. Secondly, the methodology for this study is reported, including a description of the process used to design the survey instrument, and the identification of the eight policy areas to be examined. Third, the results of the survey are presented regarding the status of ESL/bilingual education policies and their implementation in Oregon school districts. Finally, conclusions are drawn regarding the impact of districts' ESL/bilingual policies, i.e., do they contribute to equal educational opportunity for language minority students in Oregon?

## Review of Related Literature

There is an increasing awareness of the importance of research in sound educational policy formulation (Edmonds, 1982; Hakuta & Snow, 1986; Murphy, Weil, Hallinger, & Mitman, 1982). Linguistic research is at the forefront of the national policy debate over ESL/bilingual education (U.S. Senate, 1984). Court cases involving the educational treatment of language minority students rely on the input of research regarding language proficiency and academic achievement (Castaneda v. Pickard, 1981; Lau v. Nichols, 1974; Rios v. Reed, 1978).

Research into the most effective means for educating language minority students is a broad field covering the findings of psychologists, linguists, anthropologists, and sociologists. Termed "basic research" by Hakuta and Snow (1986), it focuses on the linguistic and psychological processes in the development of bilingual children. This research attempts to understand how children learn a second language, how their two languages interact, how language is related to thinking, and how children learn at different rates and develop different styles in their language and cognitive abilities. (Hakuta & Snow, 1986, p. 29)

Basic research has been characterized by sound research design and methodology, and has contributed much to the theoretical framework for effectively educating language minority students (California State Department of Education, 1982). In searching for an explanatory theory of bilingual education, Cummins and Swain (1986) identify two types of hypotheses, "interactive predictor hypotheses" (p. xvi) and "universal predictor hypotheses " (p.xvi). The first type is unlikely to achieve desired policy objectives because the effects in any particular context are dependent upon how they interact with other variables. Universal predictor hypotheses, on the other hand, show consistent effects across a wide variety of contexts. Educational policy can be reliably based on these explanatory principles since their effect are not significantly mediated or reduced through interaction with other variables. (Cummins & Swain), 1986, p. xvi).

The Contextual Interaction Theory (California State Department of Education, 1982) is based on the five basic principles or educating language minority students. According to Cummins and Swain (1986), these principles are supported by universal predictor hypotheses. The Contextual Interaction Theory takes into account the interaction of several variables with instructional treatments, and their effects on student outcomes. The variables accounted for in this theory are community background factors, student input factors, educational input factors, instructional treatments, and student outcomes (California State Department of Education, 1982).

The five basic principles of the Contextual Interaction Theory describe how student input factors interact with instructional treatments to contribute to the three major goals of educational programs for language minority students: (a) English language proficiency, (b) academic achievement, and (c) psychosocial adjustment (California State Department of Education, 1982).

The first basic principle is "for bilingual students, the degree to which proficiencies in both L1 and L2 are developed is positively associated with academic achievement" (California State Department of Education, 1982, p. 7). That is, high levels of proficiency in both the first and second language (L1 and L2, respectively) correlate with high academic achievement. The application of this principle to educational policy would indicate that the instruction of children in two languages will not necessarily confuse them nor harm them cognitively. In fact, it promotes academic achievement.

The second basic principle defines the two dimensions of language proficiency. "Language proficiency is the ability to use language for both academic purposes and basic communication tasks" (California State Department of Education, 1982, p. 9). The two domains of language proficiency have been labeled by Cummins (1981): Basic Interpersonal Communications Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Learning Proficiency (CALP). The acquisition of CALP in a second language takes much longer (five to seven years) than BICS, and CALP is necessary to perform academic tasks. The second basic principle may be applied to educational policies that determine the length of time students remain in ESL/bilingual programs, and the type of procedures used to exit students to the regular instructional program.

The third basic principle suggests that there is a substantial amount of CALP transferable from L1 to L2. The principle is "for language minority students, the development of the primary language skills necessary to complete academic tasks forms the basis for similar proficiency in English" (California State Department of Education, 1982, p. 11). The significance of the third basic principle for school policy is that time spent learning in a student's primary language is not wasted. Many important skills and concepts can be taught in L1 while the student is still learning

English. Once English language proficiency is developed, new labels can be taught without the necessity of reteaching familiar concepts.

The fourth basic principle outlines the circumstances under which second language acquisition most readily occurs. "Acquisition of basic communicative competency in a second language is a function of comprehensible second language input and a supportive affective environment" (California State Department of Education, 1982, p. 13). This principle is based upon Krashen's (181) Input Hypothesis, which states that an individual acquires language through exposure to language that is understandable, yet contains new grammatical structures just beyond the learner's current level. Krashen calls this level of language "comprehensible input" (p. 62). In order to efficiently process comprehensible input, certain affective conditions must be met. "Acquirers in a less than optimal affective state will have a filter, or mental block, preventing them from utilizing input fully for further language acquisition" (Krashen, 1981, p. 62). Since the primary goal of ESL/bilingual programs is to develop English language proficiency, the fourth basic principle has considerable usefulness in policy decisions concerning educational programs for LEP students.

The fifth basic principle emphasizes the importance of the context in which language acquisition and academic learning take place. The principle is stated: "The perceived status of students affects the interactions between teachers and students and among students themselves. In turn, student outcomes are affected" (California State Department of Education, 1982, p. 18). The applications of the fifth basic principle to school district policies and practices are very far-reaching in scope. Policies that promote equity can do much toward equalizing perceptions of group status within the school program. The involvement of minority language parents in the educational process has been shown to be effective (Lujan, Sanz, & Torres, 1983). The employment of staff who share the same ethnic backgrounds as minority students increases self-esteem and feelings of group status (San Juan Cafferty, 1981). The importance of ethnic cultures and languages is enhanced when they are taught as part of the curriculum (Cummins, 1986). Instructional methods that give minority students a chance to excel in school, such as cooperative learning (Kagan, 1986), strengthen their feelings of self-esteem and perceived status.

The Contextual Interaction Theory, supported by the five basic principles outlined above, presents a theoretical framework for educating language minorities. The empirical research to sustain this theory is profuse, only a small portion of which has been cited in the above discussion.

## Legal Mandates for Educating LEP Students

The legal requirements for the education of language minority students have their basis in research findings. The input of experts in the field of bilingual education and English as a second language instruction was considered in the passage of the Bilingual Education Act (1968) and other legislation regarding the education of language minorities. The Bilingual Education Act (Title VII of ESEA) provided funding to develop programs to educate language minorities using both their native languages and English. This act has been reauthorized with amendments at four-year intervals, and is currently in effect through 1992.

In 1970, the Office of Education published a clarification of the Title VI Civil Rights Act (1964) as it applied to national origin students (U.S. Department of Health, Education, & Welfare, 1970). Known as the "May 25 Memorandum," this document informed school districts of their obligations toward language minority students. "Where the inability to speak and understand the English language excludes national origin minority group children from effective participation in the educational program offered by a school district, the district must take affirmative steps to rectify the language deficiencies in order to open its instructional program to these students". (U.S. Department of Health, Education, & Welfare, 1970, p. 11595)

In the 1974 landmark case, Lau v. Nichols, the Supreme Court cited the May 25 Memorandum in charging school districts with taking affirmative steps to educate LEP students appropriately and meaningfully. In 1975, the Office of Education and the Office of Civil Rights (O.C.R.) issued "Task Force Findings Specifying Remedies Available for Eliminating Past Educational Practices Ruled Unlawful Under Lau v. Nichols" (U.S. Department of Health, Education, & Welfare, 1975). Commonly referred to as the Lau Guidelines, they outline appropriate affirmative steps to be taken by school districts to open their instructional programs to LEP students. They present minimum standards in the areas of identification of language minority students, program content, personnel, student assessment and reclassification, and although they do not have the force of law, they are used by the O.C.R. as standards of remediation for districts in violation of Title VI.

The states' role in ensuring equal educational opportunity for language minorities was formally recognized in the Equal Educational Opportunities Act of 1974. "No state shall deny equal opportunity to an individual on account of his or her race, color, sex, or national origin by. . .(f) the failure by an educational agency to take appropriate action to overcome language barriers that impede equal participation by its students in its instructional programs." (Sec. 1703)

Oregon has enacted various laws in the form of Oregon Revised Statutes (ORS) and Oregon Administrative Rules (OAR) that deal directly or indirectly with the educational treatment of language minority students. Districts must develop "Equal Opportunity Plans" which include components of multicultural education (ORA-581-21-046[9]). Districts are required to systematically identify LEP students and provide them with appropriate programs until such time that they can benefit from the regular school program (OAR 581-21-046[8]). Specific instruction in speaking, reading, and writing the English language is required for LEP students (ORS 336.079). Bilingual education is permitted (not required) as a means to maintain academic skills while children are acquiring English language proficiency (ORS 336.074). When assessing students for handicapping conditions, evaluation instruments must be culturally non-biased, and should be given in the student's primary language (OAR 581-15-072).

A basic skills curriculum is required that meets the needs of each student (OAR 581-22-402). Individual student assessment is required, and instruction must be provided "consistent with the desired achievement considering the needs and interests of each student" (OAR 581-22-602). Research shows that the curriculum and instruction provided for minority children must take into account their cultural backgrounds in order to consider their needs and interests.

All instructional programs must be regularly evaluated, and the results are to be used to establish priorities for program improvement (OAR 581-22-606). Districts are charged with adopting written policies and maintaining plans and programs which assure equality of educational opportunity for all students (OAR 581-22-505).

Oregon laws also address the parents and teachers of LEP students. Communications with parents whose predominant language is not English should be in their home language, when information about testing their children is to be shared (OAR 581-21-030). Districts are responsible for the training for teachers assigned to work with LEP students (ORS 342.609).

The sanctions used to enforce these state laws are monetary. Any violation of rules regarding discrimination in education may result in withholding all or part of state funding (ORS 659.155).

## Methodology

Survey research was utilized as an efficient method of gathering data from a widespread geographical area and a large number of subjects. The population surveyed consisted of all public school districts in Oregon.

The survey instrument was designed to meet several criteria. First, it needed to cover policy areas pertinent to meeting the needs of LEP students. The Center for National Origin Equity (CNOE) of the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory in Portland, Oregon, provided technical assistance in the design and content of the instrument. The policy areas covered in the questionnaire represent, in part, a union of the survey instruments developed by CNOE to collect data relevant to educational equity. In addition, the Lau Guidelines were examined to determine the various program areas pertinent to equal educational opportunity for language minority students.

After carefully considering the purpose of the study, the research on effective ESL/bilingual education, the laws regulating the education of language minority students, the Lau Guidelines, and the documents used by CNOE, eight policy areas were identified as pertaining to the provision of equal educational opportunities for language minorities. The questionnaire was designed to elicit information from these policy areas:

- Identification and assessment
- Instructional programs
- Primary language usage
- Exiting and mainstreaming
- Recognition of minority students' cultures
- Parent involvement
- Instructional personnel
- Program evaluation

The second requirement in designing the questionnaire was to achieve a high response rate. It was necessary to construct a questionnaire that was thorough enough to gather sufficient data, but not cumbersome to the point that recipients would decline to fill it out. After trying out several formats, one was selected that best accounted for the many variables being considered in the study and yet allow for relatively quick and uncomplicated completion by checking boxes.

The third criterion for the survey instrument was that it should measure accurately what it was intended to measure; that is, the actual ESL/bilingual policies and practices in Oregon public school districts. Accuracy of measurement is one of the areas in survey research particularly susceptible to error, and the validity and reliability of the instrument are two critical considerations in measurement. According to Fowler (1984), four basic reasons why respondents report events inaccurately are:

- They do not know the information
- They cannot recall it
- They do not understand the question
- They do not want to report the answer in the interview context

In order to increase instrument reliability, all of these issues were considered and dealt with in the design, field testing, and administration of the questionnaire.

Content validity of the instrument was strengthened by relating each item on the questionnaire to either (a) legal mandates related to ESL/bilingual education, or (b) research-based principles for effectively educating language minority students.

The survey instrument was developed over a six-month period during which it underwent several revisions. Regular consultations were held with equity specialists from the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, and graduate faculty from Portland State University, with the purpose of focusing the instrument on the research questions and clarifying its intent. It was field-tested on ten administrators of ESL/bilingual programs in Washington State. The final version of the survey instrument reflects input from these sources.

Surveys were mailed to the administrators in charge of ESL/bilingual programs in every school district in which that person was known. If the administrators of these programs were not known, the surveys were mailed to the district superintendents, with instructions that they should be given to the appropriate personnel.

Within three weeks of mailing the surveys, fifty percent of the school districts had responded. Follow-up phone calls and mailings were made to non-responding districts, resulting in a 93.8 percent response rate.

## Data Analysis

As the completed questionnaires were returned, they were separated into two groups: those districts which reported LEP students and those that did not. The information from those districts with LEP students was entered on a computer, using an electronic spreadsheet program. In this way, the discrete units of data could be grouped in various ways and compared to other groups of data.

Data display is defined by Miles and Huberman (1984) as an "organized assembly of information that permits conclusion-drawing and action-taking" (p. 24). Much time and attention was given to the creation of displays in order to communicate the information in a way that would give empirically-based answers to the research questions.

## Report of Findings

Policy Formulation Research Question:

1. What is the current status of ESL/bilingual education policy in Oregon school districts?

The questionnaire elicited some demographic background information in order to give context to the answer to the first research questions. In this survey, 86 of the 286 responding districts reported having 4,981 LEP students in attendance. Of the non-responding districts, seven have a total of 532 LEP students, according to the Oregon Department of Education (1987). Therefore, there are a total of 5,513 LEP students in 93 school districts in Oregon (see Table II). The findings of this study are based on the 86 responding districts which reported LEP students.

LEP students in Oregon represent 1.29 percent of the total school population of 428,904. They attend schools in 25 of Oregon's 36 counties. In only 13 districts do they constitute more than five percent of the ADM (Average Daily Membership), the minimum percentage specified in the May 25th Memorandum to the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Only three small districts (less than 250 ADM) report more than 20 percent LEP students. Of the 78 districts with less than five percent LEP students, over half have less than one percent.

## Table II
## Distribution of LEP Students in Oregon School Districts

| County | Number of LEPs | Districts with LEPs<br>Less Than 5% | 5% to 20% | Over 20% |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Central Oregon | 158 | | | |
| Deschutes | 12 | 1 | | |
| Hood River | 28 | 1 | | |
| Jefferson | 53 | 2 | | |
| Wasco | 65 | 1 | | |
| Coastal Counties | 33 | | | |
| Clatsop | 5 | 1 | | |
| Coos | 6 | 1 | | |
| Lincoln | 16 | 1 | | |
| Tillamook | 6 | 1 | | |
| Eastern Counties | 651 | | | |
| Grant | 4 | 1 | | |
| Malheur | 229 | 3 | 2 | |
| Morrow | 97 | | 1 | |
| Umatilla | 229 | 4 | 2 | |
| Union | 2 | 1 | | |
| Portland Metro | 2813 | | | |
| Clackamas | 269 | 15 | 1 | 1 |
| Multnomah | 1832 | 8 | | |
| Washington | 712 | 10 | | |
| Southern Counties | 393 | | | |
| Douglas | 21 | 2 | | |
| Jackson | 214 | 4 | | |
| Klamath | 158 | 2 | 1 | |
| Willamette Valley | 1465 | | | |
| Benton | 74 | 1 | | |
| Lane | 214 | 5 | | |
| Linn | 206 | 1 | | |
| Marion | 1052 | 8 | 3 | 2 |
| Polk | 110 | 1 | | |
| Yamhill | 99 | 5 | | |
| **Totals:** | **5513** | **80** | **10** | **3** |

Languages of LEP Students. Districts reported 46 different primary languages spoken by their LEP students. Spanish speakers make up 40.6 percent of the LEP student population, and 38.1 percent speak one of 12 Asian languages. Russian is spoken by 6.4 percent, and the rest of the languages are spoken by 14.1 percent of LEP students in the state (see Table III).

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### Table III
### Primary Languages Spoken by LEP Students in Oregon Schools

| Language Groups | | Number of LEPs | Percent of All LEPs | Number of Districts |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Spanish | | 2023 | 40.6 | 76 |
| Asian Languages | | 1896 | 38.1 | 36 |
| Vietnamese | (739) | | | |
| Cambodian | (288) | | | |
| Lao | (265) | | | |
| Mien | (168) | | | |
| Hmong | (139) | | | |
| Korean | (70) | | | |
| Chinese | (57) | | | |
| Japanese | (34) | | | |
| Indochinese | (24) | | | |
| Taiwanese | (3) | | | |
| Thai | (2) | | | |
| Asian (not specified) | (107) | | | |
| Russian | | 321 | 6.4 | 9 |
| All Other Languages | | 703 | 14.1 | |
| American Indian | (38) | | | |
| Farsi | (23) | | | |
| Romanian | (18) | | | |
| Hebrew | (16) | | | |
| Tagalog | (13) | | | |
| Indonesian | (13) | | | |
| Romance | (12) | | | |
| German | (7) | | | |
| Not specified | (557) | | | |
| Specified below* | (44) | | | |

*Four students each: Hindi. Hungarian. Middle Eastern. Portuguese.
Three students each: Afghan. Arabic. Nepalese.
Two students each: Finnish. Italian. Polish. Slavic. Truk.
One student each: Bangladesh. Croatian. Danish. Ethiopian. Hawaiian. Iraqui. Khmer. Malaysian. Swedish.

The Status of District Policy. Respondents were asked to indicate whether district policy mandated certain practices. An analysis of data indicated that 52 percent of the districts did not specify that district policy mandated any practice in their ESL/bilingual program. District policy was never the most frequently mentioned reason for ESL/bilingual practices. Twenty-three percent of the districts mentioned district policy as a rationale for maintaining identification plans for LEP students, and 21 percent cited district policy as a reason for implementing ESL pull-out programs. District policy was mentioned by less than 18 percent of districts for all other practices specified on the questionnaire (see Table IV).

All districts were asked to send a copy of their policies relevant to the education of their language minorities. One two districts sent written policies.

### Table IV
### District Policy as a Rationale for Implementing ESL/Bilingual Practice

| | Questionnaire Item | Frequency | % (n=86) |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Identification plans for LEPS | 20 | 23 |
| 2. | Assessment in L1 and L2 | 6 | 7 |
| 3. | Unbiased instruments | 10 | 12 |
| 4. | Bilingual classrooms | 5 | 6 |
| 5. | ESL pull-out | 18 | 21 |
| 6. | Other instructional models | 2 | 2 |
| 7. | Instruction in L1 | 3 | 3 |
| 8. | Development of L1 | 1 | 1 |
| 9. | Time limit to program | 1 | 1 |
| 10. | Must demonstrate readiness to exit | 13 | 15 |
| 11. | Systematic exit procedures | 14 | 16 |
| 12. | Transitional help provided | 12 | 14 |
| 13. | May return to program | 12 | 14 |
| 14. | Culturally relevant curriculum | 6 | 7 |
| 15. | Minority cultures taught | 5 | 6 |
| 16. | Parents involved in ed. program | 14 | 16 |
| 17. | Parent communication in L1 | 8 | 9 |
| 18. | Parents made welcome | 11 | 13 |
| 19. | Instructors trained in ESL | 12 | 14 |
| 20. | Effort to hire minority staff | 7 | 8 |
| 21. | Regular evaluation of LEP programs | 15 | 17 |
| 22. | Records kept on LEP achievement | 15 | 17 |

Policy Implementation Research Question:

2. What are the structures and procedures which guide ESL/bilingual policy in the areas of: (a) identification and assessment, (b) instructional programs, (c) primary language usage, (d) exiting and mainstreaming, (e) recognition of minority group cultures, (f) parental involvement, (g) personnel requirements, and (h) program evaluation?

Identification and assessment. In the area of identification and assessment of LEP students, 63 percent of districts report having an identification plan, and 60 percent maintain they use unbiased instruments; yet only 43 percent say they assess in both language (see Table V).

### Table V
### Identification and Assessment Policies

| | Item | Yes | No | No Response |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Identification plans for LEPs. | 54 (63%) | 20 (23%) | 12 (14%) |
| 2. | Assessment in L1 and L2 | 37 (43%) | 36 (42%) | 13 (15%) |
| 3. | Unbiased assessment instruments | 52 (60%) | 18 (21%) | 16 (19%) |

Instructional Programs. Concerning instructional programs for LEP students, 72 percent of districts use an ESL pull-out model, 17 percent provide bilingual classrooms, and 35 percent say they use other models. Some districts indicate the use of two or three of the above (See Table VI).

**Table VI**
**Instructional Programming Policies**

| | Item | Yes | No | No Response |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 4. | Bilingual classrooms | 15 (17%) | 56 (65%) | 15 (17%) |
| 5. | ESL pull-out model | 62 (72%) | 7 (8%) | 17 (20%) |
| 6. | Other models | 30 (35%) | 8 (9%) | 48 (56%) |

Primary Language Usage. The use of primary languages for classroom instruction is very rare, reported by 24 percent of districts. The development of primary language skills is even more unusual, being implemented by five percent of the districts (See Table VII).

**Table VII**
**Primary Language Usage Policies**

| | Item | Yes | No | No Response |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 7. | Instruction in the primary language | 21 (24%) | 47 (55%) | 18 (21%) |
| 8. | Development of the primary language | 4 (5%) | 58 (67%) | 24 (28%) |

Exiting and Mainstreaming Procedures. Only 13 percent of the districts have a set limit to the amount of time a student may stay in an ESL/bilingual program. Most districts (71 percent) require a demonstration of readiness before a student is exited to the regular program and 55 percent say they have systematic exiting procedures (see Table VIII). Once a child is exited from the ESL/bilingual program, 67 percent of districts provide transitional help, and if the child experiences unusual difficulty, 67 percent of districts allow the option to return to the ESL/bilingual program (see Table IX).

**Table VIII**
**Exiting Policies**

| | Item | Yes | No | No Response |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 9. | Time limit in program | 11 (13%) | 41 (48%) | 34 (40%) |
| 10. | Demonstration of readiness required | 61 (71%) | 10 (12%) | 15 (17%) |
| 11. | Exiting procedures systematic | 47 (55%) | 20 (23%) | 19 (22%) |

**Table IX**
**Mainstreaming Policies**

| | Item | Yes | No | No Response |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 12. | Transitional help provided | 58 (67%) | 14 (16%) | 14 (16%) |
| 13. | Returning to program is an option | 58 (67%) | 10 (12%) | 18 (21%) |

Recognition of Minority Cultures. The language minority students' cultural backgrounds are considered in program planning by 50 percent of the districts, and the cultures of language minority students are taught in the curriculum in 30 percent of the districts (see Table X).

Table X
Recognition of Minority Cultures

| | Item | Yes | No | No Response |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 14. | Culturally relevant curriculum | 43 (50%) | 17 (20%) | 26 (30%) |
| 15. | Minority cultures taught | 26 (30%) | 34 (40%) | 26 (30%) |

Involvement of Minority Parents. The involvement of minority parents is sought in program development and implementation by 55 percent of the districts. Communication with parents in their dominant language occurs in 65 percent of the districts, and 73 percent of the districts say that parents of language minority students are made to feel welcome in the school (see Table XI).

Table XI
Parental Involvement Policies

| | Item | Yes | No | No Response |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 16. | Parents involved in the educational program | 47 (55%) | 19 (22%) | 20 (23%) |
| 17. | Communications in L1 of parents | 56 (65%) | 18 (21%) | 12 (14%) |
| 18. | Minority parents are made welcome | 63 (73%) | 5 (6%) | 18 (21%) |

Instructional Personnel. In the area of personnel requirements, 57 percent of the districts report that teachers who work with LEP students have specialized training in either bilingual education or teaching English as a second language. An effort is made to employ staff at all levels who share the same ethnicity of the languages minority students in 33 percent of the districts (see Table XII).

Table XII
Personnel Policies

| | Item | Yes | No | No Response |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 19. | Instructors trained in ESL methods | 49 (57%) | 23 (27%) | 14 (16%) |
| 20. | Effort made to hire minority staff | 28 (33%) | 26 (30%) | 32 (37%) |

Program Evaluation. The ESL/bilingual programs are regularly evaluated with the purpose of program improvement in 67 percent of the districts. Data is collected and records kept on the academic achievement of language minority students by 51 percent of the districts (see Table XIII).

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**Table XIII**
**Program Evaluation Policies**

| | Item | Yes | No | No Response |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 21. | Regular evaluation of ESL/bilingual programs | 58 (67%) | 17 (20%) | 11 (13%) |
| 22. | Records kept on achievement of LEPs | 44 (51%) | 21 (24%) | 21 (24%) |

Responses to the survey were broken down and tabulated by district size and by concentrations of LEP students. This comparison of data showed that the responses of large districts and those of small districts did not vary significantly from the overall responses reported above. However, the responses of those districts with large concentrations of LEP students indicated stronger ESL/bilingual practices in every policy area when compared to the combined responses of all districts.

Policy Impact Question:

3. Are local school districts' ESL/bilingual policies in apparent compliance with the laws regarding equal educational opportunity for language minority students?

When the responses to questionnaire items were compared to the requirements of the laws relating to the education of language minorities, few districts demonstrated apparent compliance (see Table XIV). In tabulating the questionnaire responses, it was found that 29 of the 86 districts met the Title VI requirements for language minorities as specified in the May 25th Memorandum. However, these procedures were required of only those districts with more than five percent national origin minority group children, and by applying the criteria to the 12 districts with more than five percent, only seven districts were found to be apparently out of compliance with Title VI.

**Table XIV**
**Apparent Compliance with Federal and State Laws**

| Regulation | Apparent Compliance No. | Apparent Compliance % | Apparent Lack of Compliance No. | Apparent Lack of Compliance % |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Federal Regulations | | | | |
| Title VI, Civil Rights Act, 1964 | 79 | 92 | 7 | 8 |
| Lau Guidelines | 65 | 76 | 21 | 24 |
| Oregon State Regulations | | | | |
| OAR 581-15-072 (Item 3) | 52 | 60 | 34 | 40 |
| OAR 581-21-030 (Item 17) | 55 | 64 | 31 | 36 |
| OAR 581 21-046(8) (Items 1, 3, 9, 10, 11, 12) | 14 | 16 | 72 | 84 |
| OAR 581-21-046(9) | 31 | 36 | 55 | 64 |
| OAR 581-22-402 (Items 10, 14) | 37 | 43 | 49 | 57 |
| OAR 581-22-602 (Items 3, 12) | 42 | 49 | 44 | 51 |
| OAR 581-22-606 (Items 21, 22) | 38 | 44 | 48 | 56 |
| ORS 336.079 (Items 4, 5, or 6) | 82 | 95 | 4 | 5 |
| ORS 342.609 | 48 | 56 | 38 | 44 |

The data suggests that only five districts in the state meet all requirements for compliance with the Lau Guidelines. However, these guidelines were directed only to districts with 20 or more LEP students in a single language category. When that limitation is applied, only 21 districts are not in apparent compliance.

Oregon State laws relevant to ESL/bilingual education apply to all districts with one or more LEP students. A majority of districts are not in apparent compliance with five of the nine Oregon laws examined in this study.

1. (OAR 581-21-046[8]). The requirements for districts to develop and implement plans for identifying LEP students and to provide appropriate programs until they can benefit from the regular instructional program appears to be in compliance by 16 percent of the districts.

2. (OAR 581-21-046[9]). The requirement to develop Equal Opportunity Plans, including multicultural education components, shows apparent compliance by 36 percent of the districts.

3. (OAR 581-22-402). Forty-three percent of the districts appear to be in compliance with the requirement to provide appropriate curriculum and instruction to students achieving less than expected for their grade level (in the context of appropriate education for language minority students).

4. (OAR 581-22-606). The requirement to use appropriate methods to assess each student's learning needs and interests of each student shows apparent compliance by 49 percent of the districts.

5. (OAR 581-22-606). Forty-four percent of the districts show apparent compliance with the requirement to maintain procedures for evaluating and improving all instructional programs (including ESL/bilingual programs), including student performance measures.

Only eight districts (nine percent of the respondents with LEP students) are in apparent compliance with all Oregon laws relating to ESL/bilingual education. Seventy-eight districts (91 percent) appear to be out of compliance with at least one of the laws. The procedures most often mentioned that are not in legal compliance are: (1) arbitrary time limits for exiting, (b) minority cultures not taught in the curriculum, and (c) the cultural background of minority students is not taken into account when planning the curriculum.

Policy Impact Research Question:

4. Are local school districts' ESL/bilingual education policies in concurrence with basic principles for effectively educating language minority students?

The responses to the questionnaire indicate that policies and procedures of districts are rarely in concurrence with the five basic principles for effectively educating language minority students (see Table XV).

### Table XV
### Concurrence Between ESL/Bilingual Policies and Basic Principles for the Education of Language Minorities

| | Districts in Agreement | | Districts Not in Agreement | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Basic Principles** | No. | % | No. | % |
| First Basic Principle (Items 4, 8) | 3 | 4 | 83 | 97 |
| Second Basic Principle (Items 9, 10, 11) | 25 | 29 | 61 | 71 |
| Third Basic Principle (Item 7) | 21 | 24 | 65 | 76 |
| Fourth Basic Principle (Items 4, 5, or 6; & 14, 15) | 36 | 42 | 50 | 58 |
| Fifth Basic Principle (Items 16, 17, 18) | 36 | 42 | 50 | 58 |
| All Five Basic Principles | 2 | 2 | 84 | 98 |

Only four percent of districts responded in accordance with the first basic principle, the importance of the development of both languages in bilingual children.

The responses of 29 percent of the districts appear to concur with the second basic principle, which defines the two domains of language proficiency.

The third basic principle, which states that learning in the primary language will readily transfer to English, is supported by the responses of 24 percent of the districts.

Forty-two percent of districts show concurrence with the fourth basic principle, which states that second language acquisition is a function of comprehensible input and a supportive affective environment.

The policies and practices of 42 percent of the districts appear to support the fifth basic principle, that the perceived status of language minority students affects student outcomes.

An analysis of the data shows that only two percent of the districts have policies and practices that concur with all five basic principles.

## Conclusions

1. One of the most notable findings in this study was the lack of frequency that district policy was mentioned as the basis for implementing ESL/bilingual practices in the schools. This could be due to: (a) lack of written policy, (b) lack of knowledge of the policy, or (c) the perception of lack of importance of policy. According to McLaughlin (1987), those actors involved in the implementation of policy are not especially concerned with the wording or intent of policy as it was enunciated by the policy formulators at the macro level. Rather, they have their own set of beliefs, constraints, and self-interests that shape how the policy looks as implemented.

In the absence of written district policy, standard operating procedures imply de facto policy, under which most Oregon districts appear to be operating, according to their responses. This study found that policies and procedures are implemented, according to the majority of respondents, because they are considered educationally effective. Apparently the standard of what practices are educationally effective is based on the perception of the ESL/bilingual program director of each district, rather than research-based principles, or state and federal laws. In the absence of a clear statewide standard by which to interpret laws (Jones, 1977), there is a wide variation in the quality of instructional services for language minority students.

2. Although the majority of districts are in apparent compliance with most questionnaire items related to the law, very few districts appear to meet all requirements necessary to comply with each law at the federal and state levels.

The eight Oregon districts which are in apparent compliance with all laws relevant to ESL/bilingual education are not all one type of district. In fact, their diversity of characteristics contradicts the supposition that a district must be large, with substantial resources, and have large numbers of LEP students, in order to comply with the law. These eight districts do not fit into a single category. Their ADMs range from 657 to 50,900; the numbers of LEP students from 15 to 1,699. They are located in rural, suburban, and urban areas of six counties throughout the state. Their singly unifying feature is that policy decisions have been made that put their ESL/bilingual programs in apparent compliance with the law.

3. The correlation between school districts' ESL/bilingual education policies and basic principles for effectively educating language minority students is very low. Only two districts report policies and practices that support all five basic principles. The implementation of these principles in school districts is unsystematic at best and completely ignored at worst.

The synthesis of findings from the two policy impact questions suggests strongly that Oregon districts exhibit neither consistent compliance with laws pertaining to ESL/bilingual education programs, nor conformance with research-based principles for effectively educating language minority students. This study concludes, therefore, that the impact of ESL/bilingual policies as implemented in a majority of Oregon school districts is failing in many important respects to provide equal educational opportunity to language minority students.

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# BILINGUAL EDUCATION:
# A LOOK TO THE YEAR 2000
*(ED373573)*

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*This paper is based on a lecture delivered by the author on December 6, 1993, at the Interactive Teleconference sponsored by the Title VII Multifunctional Resource Center at California State Polytechnic University, Pomona, CA (MRC 14). The author offers his vision of the future of education for language minority students, based upon proposed legislation and other government initiatives and prevailing reform movements evident today.*

In Germany, the movement is called "die Reform." In Japan, they are enchanted with a concept called "Resutora"—the Japanese pronunciation of the English word "restructuring." The idea is being implemented in manufacturing, financial, and education settings. In Mexico, they refer to "la reforma educativa" to describe their education reform efforts. In the United States, terms such as "restructure," "realign," and "systemic" are used to refer to our reform efforts.

The chief characteristic of our age is that we face numerous fundamental reform movements that promise to reshape our society. Newspapers and magazines are filled with stories about the need to redefine, change, and reform basic institutional structures. The number and types of reforms are astounding. The call to reform extends to these areas:

- government and the ways we accommodate the various political interests and demands;
- health, ethics, and the judicial system;
- corporate structure and business practices;
- religious institutions;
- the arts;
- family structure and roles and expectations for parents and children;
- welfare and other social services;
- policies related to immigration, national subsidies, and foreign trade;
- the role of the United States in international affairs; and
- science and technology, especially in the dramatic innovations in the field of information technology for synthesizing and disseminating information to different audiences.

The education reform movement is no exception to these massive national and global realignments of roles and functions, and it is not surprising that school reform is a primary concern to many of the nation's citizens. After all, the quality of education in this country is the engine that must drive all these other advances. However, the condition of education is considered by many observers to be a catastrophe, despite many isolated successes. The conditions we see today are the result of years of national neglect, especially in our inner cities and rural areas. The problems schools face are also the result of our limited responses to significant and widespread changes in community demographics during the past ten years, such as the increasing number of children and youth who come from single-parent homes, the number of recent immigrants, and the number of youth and children who come from homes in crime and drug-ridden neighborhoods.

Now we must face the issues directly to improve the academic and linguistic opportunities for all students, especially language minority and limited English proficient (LEP) students. The first step toward meaningful reform in the education of LEP students is to reform our attitudes and expectations of them. For example, if we believe that LEP students cannot learn and achieve at the same levels as their English proficient peers, we have no motivation to improve the opportunities we provide to them and they, in turn, will continue to perform poorly and drop out of school in record numbers. This inevitably leads our schools as a whole to continue to decline to even lower levels. Our fundamental belief must be that language minority and LEP students are fully capable of achieving academic success. The next step is to back up this belief with carefully planned actions and provide these students with equal opportunities to learn and achieve, through either sound and comprehensive programs of bilingual education or other carefully planned instructional approaches.

Educators must seize the moment, where there is a critical mass of energy, and focus to create change in the right direction for our schools and our students. The energy and talent devoted to each of the reform movements provide the very momentum for us to improve our public schools. All of us—students, educators, parents, and concerned citizens—have the opportunity to reshape the place we call "school." We can expand its boundaries and perhaps then break them down; we can alter the school's role as a site for teaching, learning, and growing; and we can make it a place for growing up to be respectful and tolerant of self and others. We have the unparalleled opportunity to redefine the character of schools and, ultimately, of its citizens.

## PROPOSED INITIATIVES FOR SCHOOL REFORM

There are a number of important initiatives that represent different routes we can take on our journey toward meaningful school reform. The first initiative was the formulation of the *National Education Goals Statements*. This document represents one of the most important developments in the national school reform movement in the past 25 years. Its six statements declare our intentions about how our schools need to change in order to serve us as a nation. The statements posit that schooling is not only for children and youth but a lifelong endeavor for adults as well. They also have initiated discussions about the essential content of instruction and the need for school restructuring efforts as the essential response to poorly performing schools. However, in order to make good on these goals, we need structure, clear federal and state policies, and a full commitment by the nation. Since 1989, the *National Education Goals Statements* and their underlying concepts have served as the foundation for three more current and substantive reform proposals submitted to the U.S. Congress in 1993 by President Bill Clinton and Secretary of Education Richard Riley.

The second initiative is *Goals 2000—the Educate America Act of 1993*. This systemic reform bill is based on two fundamental concepts: every child in every school in the nation can work toward and achieve high standards, and schools and communities have the obligation to provide every child with the opportunity to achieve at high levels. Enacted into legislation on March 26, 1994, this bill will further the development of voluntary national curriculum and performance standards and provide funding to state education agencies (SEAs) to develop education reform plans to help local school districts implement the standards.

The third initiative is the *School To Work Opportunities Act*. This systemic reform bill is designed to put into place structures that guarantee that every American student graduates from high school with the knowledge, skills, and experience necessary either to continue with higher education or to find productive employment. The underlying concept of this legislation is that schools will work with business and industry to delineate mutual roles and expectations. This will bring these two sectors together.

- The fourth initiative, the *Improving America's Schools Act*, is the reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), which is designed to ensure that students, especially those with the greatest needs, are provided with increased opportunities to achieve. The following five principles guide the proposals:
  - high standards for all children;
  - a focus on teaching and learning;
  - flexibility to stimulate school reform, coupled with responsibility for improving performance of all students;
  - better linkages between schools and parents and the community; and
  - resources targeted to where needs are greatest and in amounts sufficient to make a difference.

## DETERMINING DIRECTIONS FOR THE YEAR 2000 AND BEYOND

If we are to create and sustain effective school-wide instructional programs for all students, especially bilingual programs for LEP students, for the year 2000 and beyond, then each facet of our education system must be prepared to take bold, innovative directions. Defining these directions is part of the reauthorization proposals for the Bilingual Education Act, which is Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act.

If bilingual education programs are to improve significantly by the year 2000 and if such programs are to continue to play a substantive role in our national school improvement efforts, then it is necessary to have certain expectations for our schools, state education agencies, colleges and universities (IHEs), parents, and the U.S. Department of Education (ED).

### *FIRST, WHAT SHOULD WE EXPECT FROM OUR SCHOOLS?*

First of all, we should expect our schools to provide curriculum standards-driven programs of bilingual education and other instruction for LEP and other students, the same as for every other school program. Integrated bilingual education programs should be at the core of the system at the school and district levels. Also, programs financed by federal, state, and local funding sources should help schools operate unified and comprehensive schoolwide and districtwide programs of instruction for all students.

We should expect systemwide bilingual education programs focused on effective instructional strategies such as problem-based and project-based learning, socratic teaching principles, use of authentic problems, peer tutoring, and collaborative learning. These methods are the ones used in successful classrooms, especially for gifted and talented students.

We should also expect bilingual education programs that have the explicit objective of developing students' English language proficiency and, to the extent possible, developing the native or second language proficiency of limited English *and* English proficient students to increase the number of bilingual high school graduates and, ultimately, the number of bilingual professionals in the nation.

We should expect bilingual education programs to be coordinated across all grades and linked across schools in the district from Home Start, Head Start, and Even Start programs to elementary and secondary schools. This requires 12-month and multi-year schooling plans that ensure sustained education opportunities for all students, including postsecondary education.

We should expect the use of prescriptive student profiles linked to school reform plans, including curriculum and performance standards frameworks. School personnel profiles should also be used to coordinate staff resources with instructional approaches and program resources. This calls for sustained year-round professional development to provide opportunities for teachers to become proficient in and be able to teach in English and another language.

We should also expect bilingual education programs in which teaching and learning strategies are supported by the use of interactive education technologies that help document program accountability on the basis of performance standards (student achievement) and performance indicators (program-level accomplishments), and guide staff to gauge the impact of the program on systemic school reform objectives. Finally, we should expect schools to identify the best instructional and management practices as proven by sound assessments to build and sustain institutional capacity to serve students. This means, in part, that schools must strive to use the information to upgrade and restructure teaching and learning rather than facilitate the emergence of alternative schooling opportunities.

### ***NEXT, WHAT SHOULD WE EXPECT FROM STATE EDUCATION AGENCIES (SEAs)?***

First, we should expect SEAs to be providing guidance on all of the reforms carried out at the school and district level. In addition, they should articulate policies regarding the education of all students, with statements about their responsibilities regarding LEP students in the context of curriculum, performance, and opportunity-to-learn standards.

We should expect SEAs to provide leadership in the development and full implementation of state reform plans that address the teaching and learning requirements of all students. They should also be expected to provide leadership in the development and full implementation of reform plans at every school district, with objectives and strategies integrally linked to the state's reform plans, especially in schools with high concentrations of low-income and/or LEP students.

SEAs should also be expected to lead the way in the development of curriculum frameworks for all students, but with specific guidance on how schools are expected to ensure that LEP students achieve to the high standards projected for all students. SEAs should also be expected to provide the staffing and technical assistance resources needed to implement schoolwide and districtwide programs of bilingual education.

SEAs should lead in the design of flexible approaches for improving teaching and learning for LEP students. Such approaches might operate on a continuum from content-based ESL at one end to dual language programs of instruction for LEP and other students at the other end. These programs should ignore artificial and misleading labels such as transitional bilingual education, developmental bilingual education, special alternative instructional programs, and immersion programs.

SEAs should be expected to provide leadership in the use of education technologies to document state-level program accountability on the basis of performance standards (student achievement), performance indicators (program-level accomplishments data), and the collective impact of bilingual education programs on the state's systemic school reform objectives.

SEAs should also guide schools in the use of the best management, professional development, research, and quality control practices used in corporate America to help schools develop and operate fiscally and educationally sound programs.

Finally, SEAs should offer leadership in matching schools with funding sources and helping them comply with funding criteria. This includes conducting technical reviews of proposals from LEAs to improve their competitiveness.

### ***WHAT SHOULD WE EXPECT FROM INSTUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION (IHEs)?***

First, we should expect leadership in helping schools with higher concentrations of LEP students to develop systemic reform plans and integrate the activities into the university course work, research, and practica for teacher interns.

IHEs should also work with SEAs and school districts to increase the type and number of school staff provided to improve teaching and learning. This includes efforts to perform inter-disciplinary training programs and dual language professional development degree or certification programs as the norm.

IHEs should also be conducting research and committing resources, in cooperation with private industry, to develop curriculum, education, and school management software for use in schools and universities.

They should also take a leadership role in operating school personnel professional development programs closely linked to schoolwide bilingual education programs. This includes programs and efforts to improve the multicultural competencies of all school staff to effectively serve linguistically and culturally diverse student and family populations.

IHEs should lead in hiring and training multicultural and bilingual faculty members who have significant experience in schools and can mentor school staff in the development and implementation of responsive school reform plans.

Finally, IHEs should develop staff exchange programs with SEAs and schools to help refine systemic reform plans, including mentoring opportunities for school and IHE faculties.

### *WHAT SHOULD WE EXPECT FROM PARENTS AND OTHER COMMUNITY MEMBERS?*

First, we should be responsible for making schools and schooling a top community priority. We should insist that schools place academic scholarship at the core of every activity, from athletics to the fine arts.

Parents should provide positive models of behavior. The objective might not be a return to an "age of innocence," as much as a retreat from what has been called the current "age of offense," where many are offensive and too many others are unnecessarily offended.

Parents and community members should actively participate in the implementation of state and school reform plans by playing a role in verifying that teaching and learning opportunities are being equitably provided to all students.

They should promote the benefits of bilingualism and multiculturalism as resources for sustaining communities and valuable skills for the national and international marketplace. They can also provide the leadership to ensure that home and community cultural knowledge and practice are significantly represented in the school's curriculum and professional development efforts, including the use of native and second languages and cultural information for teaching and learning.

Finally, parents and community members can actively support financing strategies that result in increased funding for schools and that ensure the fair distribution of the resources needed to implement reform plans.

### *WHAT SHOULD WE EXPECT FROM THE U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION (ED) AND OTHER FEDERAL AGENCIES?*

First, we should expect ED and other agencies to take the lead in the full implementation of national voluntary curriculum, performance, and opportunity-to-learn standards.

ED should be expected to develop a federal-wide strategy to increase collaborative efforts and help recipients pool the fiscal and technical resources of the departments of Education, Health and Human Services, and Labor, and other agencies such as the National Science Foundation, the National Endowment for the Humanities, and the National Endowment for the Arts.

ED should also take the lead in funding the development and implementation of state reform plans. This also calls for assisting in the development of comprehensive state plans that combine the resources targeted for health, welfare, and workforce training reform efforts.

ED should lead in designing and funding responsive research and development efforts that are directly linked to school needs and expectations. This includes the timely translation of research and evaluation findings into guidance to schools.

ED should also be expected to implement its "Consolidated Strategic Plan" that makes clear its mission and the roles and expectations of each of its principal offices, and describes related indicators of performance. This document could become the blueprint for reform envisioned for all schools, IHEs, SEAs, and communities.

ED should lead in the implementation of comprehensive national assessments and surveys of populations served by federal programs that accommodate LEP persons. The result might be accurate national report cards that describe the achievements of all students and schools.

ED should also lead in providing technical assistance through regional centers whose purpose is to link SEAs, schools, and other agencies to achieve high performance and management standards and, in turn, help students achieve to high academic standards. This includes assistance in developing language-appropriate assessment strategies to gauge the progress of LEP students.

Finally, ED should provide flexible funding criteria, regulations, and broad definitions of eligible student populations across programs such as Title I (currently Chapter 1), Even Start, Migrant Education, and others; Title II (professional development and technical assistance); Title III (technology, gifted and talented education); Title VI (Indian education); and Title VII (bilingual and immigrant education). This means that schools with LEP students will be able to use multi-source funding to operate bilingual education and other programs of instruction for LEP students and their English proficient peers, to provide professional development of all school staff, and to collect performance data from student cohorts that are representative of whole schools and whole districts. This does not mean, however, that ED should cease to act as an oversight agency.

## IMAGINE THE YEAR 2000

When the reauthorized ESEA is fully implemented, then in the year 2000 we can imagine the following reforms becoming a reality:

- Title I, state, and local funds supporting the development and implementation of the general schoolwide and districtwide improvement plan for all communities, but especially for high poverty communities;
- Title II funds directly and indirectly supporting professional development activities for all school staff;
- Title III and other funds supporting the purchase and use of education hardware and software technologies;
- Title VII and other funds providing additional support for districtwide or schoolwide bilingual education programs, including additional professional development and evaluation activities; and
- Title II regional centers working in partnership with the SEAs and ED to provide the technical assistance needed to design and implement systemic school reform plans and evaluations of bilingual education programs and other services.

We can also imagine bilingual education programs that are implemented over a long enough period of time to ensure their full effect and adjusted to students with the following needs:

- native born students who are mostly English speaking but want to formally reacquire their family background language;
- native born students who are not fully proficient in English;
- non-U.S.-born students who are LEP;
- students who represent significant numbers of speakers of the same language; and
- students who represent small numbers of speakers of varied non-English languages.

This commitment to reform can mean that the duration of bilingual education programs is determined by teaching and learning requirements, rather than by state assessment policies that require student testing in English-only in particular grades, without regard to whether such students have learned enough English to demonstrate their growth in content skills and their application, or before the programs have had their full education effects.

School districts will be able to conduct such programs in the context of state and local reform plans that have been created by consensus of all important participants. The result will be comprehensive, clearly defined, and unified approaches to bilingual education that are not evident today. Finally, our communities will be able to reap the benefits of schools when they are truly operating as a system that links teaching, learning, professional development, and student and staff certifications of achievement to challenging and clearly defined curriculum and performance standards for students and staff.

This can be the reality of comprehensive programs of bilingual education: programs that are additive rather than remedial, that nurture the linguistic and cultural diversity of all students rather than deny the importance and usefulness of their characteristics and needs, that operate as a continuum across all grades from preschool to postsecondary levels and into the workplace, and that extend to new limits the conceptual and theoretical bases.

In the past, some observers have asked if bilingual education works. The vision outlined here is more possible now than ever before, given the commitment to school reform that is being made by the government and dedicated educators. In the year 2000, perhaps we can be in the position to declare that the conditions for effective programs of bilingual education will be met.

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# TREND 3:
# THE HIGH RATE OF TEENAGE PREGNANCY AND PARENTHOOD

For three decades now, teenage pregnancy has been declared to be at "epidemic" levels. In 1965, there were 590,662 live births to teenage girls; this figure represented 15.9% of all births for that year (Conference on Determinants of Adolescent Pregnancy and Childbearing, 1980). By the late 1960s and early 1970s, it was estimated that one girl in ten was a mother before the age of 18, "with the trend on the increase", (Nye, *School-age Parenthood,* 1976).

Concomitant with the rise in young teenage mothers were obvious social consequences, affecting all segments of society. In 1968, Campbell wrote this now classic scenario (*Journal of Marriage and Family Planning,* 30, 1968):

> The girl who has an illegitimate child at the age of 16 suddenly has 90% of her life script written for her. She will probably drop out of school, even if someone else in her family helps to take care of the baby; she will probably not be able to find a steady job that pays enough to provide for herself and her child; she may even feel impelled to marry someone she might not otherwise have chosen. Her life choices are few and most of them are bad. (p.238)

In the years 1973-74, the number of teenage births peaked, due largely to the fact that the ratio of teenage "baby boomers" in the population as a whole also peaked at this time. Yet, despite this overall decline in the population, the incidence of teenage pregnancies remained constant. In fact, the proportion of births to younger girls increased dramatically, as did the unmarried teen birth rate. Between 1970 and 1985, births to unmarried teenagers increased 32% among 15 to 17 year olds and 42% among 18 to 19 year olds (Children's Defense Fund, 1990). By 1985, it was predicted that 40% of all fourteen-year-olds would become pregnant during their teenage years, with half of these pregnancies resulting in live births (Child Welfare League of America).

Some 30 years after teenage pregnancy was first identified as an "epidemic," it continues to be a trend of great sociological impact. In 1993 (the year for which there are most current data), there were 501,093 babies born to teenage mothers. While this is the second year in a slight decline in the birth rate, there is no indication that the problem is going away. In fact, one in ten teenage girls still become pregnant each year. Exacerbating the problem is the fact that 82% of teen pregnancies are reportedly unplanned and 55.5% of pregnant teens remain unmarried at the birth of their child.

Today, the life script for teenage parents is practically unchanged from the one Campbell described in 1968—the majority of teenage mothers still live in poverty, have dropped out of school and are unemployed (ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education).

The impact of teenage pregnancy and parenthood on the schools is most clearly evident in the dropout rate. Over the past 30 years between half and two-thirds of all female dropouts have cited pregnancy as their principal reason for leaving school (Coombs and Cooley, *"Dropouts: In High School and After School,"* 1968; Furstenberg, *Social Consequences of Teenage Childbearing,* 1980; Academy for Educational Development, 1988). The dropout rate of teenage fathers has only recently even received attention.

Since so little has changed economically and socially for teenage parents over the past 30 years, one might rightly wonder just what have schools done in the last three decades to address this problem? That response (and the lack thereof) are the focus of this section's review.

### The Lingering "Ostrich" Approach

Throughout the 1960's and into the 1970's, the school's characteristic response to teenage pregnancy was to "remove" the problem--girls were either expelled from school or provided with "homebound" instruction that kept them segregated from their peers. Those girls who sought to sue for readmission to their schools on the grounds that they were denied equal protection under the 14th Amendment met with varying success. In *Perry v. Grenada Municipal School District,* a 1969 Court ruled that "...plaintiffs may not be excluded from the schools of the district for the sole reason that they are unwed mothers..." However, a 1972 ruling by the Georgia courts (*Houston v. Presser*) found that the Decatur County policy requiring teenage and married parents to attend night school instead of day time classes did not involve a denial of due process.

The schools and the courts were accurate reflectors of the opinion generally accepted by society at this time: teenage pregnancy was more of a moral issue than an educational one. Yet, there were a number of efforts undertaken during these years to try to improve the lot of pregnant teenagers, within the accepted structure. Patricia Link provides a warm portrait of a Homebound Coordinator through the 1960s and 1970s for the Lafayette (LA) parish schools in her paper, *"An Alternative Program for Pregnant Schoolgirls."* She writes of her "many unique and amusing experiences" that include being bitten by a goose, having twelve baby pigs climb into her car, and meeting a dog that only understood French.

### Moving Programs to the Schools–via Special Education

While most school systems that provided services to pregnant teenage girls did go outside of the regular school system, some innovative educators during this same time frame came up with a plan for enabling pregnant teenage girls to receive services within the schools. To do this they devised a rather creative mechanism: teenage girls were classified as physically handicapped, and as such, entitled to special education classes and funding. Slavick, a Member of the San Mateo, CA, Board of Education in 1975, explains in her paper, *"Coping with Teen-Age Parents,"* how the California Education Code section was amended in 1968 to give school districts the responsibility and the funds to educate pregnant teenagers by classifying pregnancy as a physical handicap. Slavick defends San Mateo's special education approach as follows: "A major defense of the program is the fact that refusing the pregnant girl the opportunity to complete her education is not only a denial of the girl's rights, it also damages both the girl and society through her chances of unemployment, underemployment, and thus welfare and dependency."

### Schools Are Forced to Open Their Doors: Title IX

Though changes in approach were slow to emerge in the literature, pregnant teenagers found new allies in legislation. In 1972, Title IX of the Education Amendments mandated that pregnant teenagers and those already parents had the same access to public education as all other students.

All at once, educators–no matter what their personal views—were legally bound to educate every teenager who became pregnant while of school age. The result, as documented in the literature, was oftentimes confusion with less than desirable results. Puffert, describing Seattle, Washington's approach to Title IX, in her paper, *Teenage Parents: An Educational Program for Intervention*, found that:

1. At the administrator and practitioner level, there is a misunderstanding of policy.
2. There is bias.
3. There is incomplete knowledge of school-age parenthood.
4. There is a lack of confidence in school counselors to counsel the pregnant student.
5. It is a low priority item in terms of outdated policy and lack of guidelines and training.

To address these obstacles, Puffert's paper puts forth a comprehensive model for vocational and family life education.

A legislative analysis by the National School Boards Association (Greene, *Addressing Teenage Pregnancy and Parenthood*) cited the findings of a study done by the Rand Corporation in 1981 (ED216263) that "most school programs addressing the needs of teenage parents are spearheaded by one or two committed individuals, usually someone from the school system or the private sector. These are the people who have seen the problem firsthand, know what help is needed, and have the energy and the determination to do something about it." Greene goes on to quote the observation of one public school teacher: "Gifted and talented students and learning disabled have advocacy groups. But the teenage mothers are the forgotten many."

### Re-examining What Has Been Accomplished Under Title IX

The most recent literature on teenage pregnancy has been reflective about past accomplishments and future needs. At the time of this publication, Title IX is nearly twenty-five years old. Yet, the more recent studies report the same concerns raised by the earlier papers, that Title IX is not fully meeting its promise. Certainly, the situation has improved from the early days referenced here. Greene quotes a Dallas administrator who observed, "In the early 1970's it wasn't unusual for principals to bar a pregnant student from walking across the stage to pick up her diploma. Today, our High School for Health Professions houses a center program for pregnant girls. The epidemic proportions of teenage pregnancy are being addressed."

A legal analysis by the Education Commission of the States in 1985 (Belsches-Simmons, *Teenage Pregnancy and Schooling: Legal Considerations*) found that "... most states have no comprehensive policy for dealing with the pregnant student, or the student who is a parent. Where policies do exist, they can be divided into two general categories: rules excluding or segregating pregnant girls and mothers and rules restricting their participation in extracurricular activities." The author concludes her analysis with this thought:

> Legislatures should consider whether denial of Equal Opportunity is an appropriate response to the problems of the child who is a parent. Is the problem of teenage promiscuity handled by dealing only with those children who were "caught" by reason of their pregnancy or parenthood? Legislation prescribing sex

> education, planned parenthood, parenting classes and counseling might better serve the legislative concern.

Similar morality-related overtones were uncovered by the Academy for Educational Development in a study conducted under a grant from the Ford Foundation in 1987-88. In surveying administrators in nine cities on their policies, practices, programs, and plans for pregnant and parenting students, the study authors concluded that "pregnant and parenting teens are victimized by a number of factors which combine to keep them low on everyone's short list of students to be targeted for assistance." In their report, *Improving Educational Opportunities for Pregnant and Parenting Students,* the authors attribute this "victimization" by administrators partly to feelings that such students have been "bad," and partly to being overwhelmed by other equally pressing needs that divert their attention.

A survey conducted by the Equality Center of twelve diverse schools to see how fully they were complying with Title IX both in practice and in spirit found similar shortfalls. The title of Nash and Dunkle's report, *The Need for A Warming Trend,* provides a preview of their findings. Among the problems pinpointed were:

- Administrators and teachers do not see teen pregnancy as a drop-out issue.
- Teachers and administrators view pregnant teenage girls and teenage mothers as second-class students.
- Schools' rigid attendance policies do not allow pregnant teens the scheduling flexibility they need to attend to medical problems and still stay in school.
- Few schools make special efforts to reach teen fathers.

This review concludes with a hopeful strategy for helping teenage parents make the transition from adolescence to economic independence. According to Lankard (*Career Education for Teen Parents,* 1994), the best chance for breaking the cycle of poverty and unemployment, is for schools to offer student parents life skills development, career awareness, and job skills development. The author identifies three characteristics that influence the success of such efforts:

- appropriateness of the program to the targeted population
- the community network influence
- aftercare or post-program follow-up

**Summary**

For 30 years, teenage pregnancy has been called an "epidemic." Yet, historically, schools have been slow to react to this crisis. Social mores continue to pose obstacles to pregnant students getting free public education. Belsches-Simmons describes the situation this way:

> Until the last [30] years or so, the phenomenon of teenage pregnancy was handled with relative ease. The girl either shouldered the entire burden by voluntarily leaving school for the duration...or enrolled in special schools for unwed mothers, sometimes provided by the school district. However, young mothers and mothers-to-be no longer wish to be segregated from other students or forego the opportunity to receive an education. The challenge for school officials and state policy makers is to fashion policy which addresses the changing morality, yet ensures that quality education for both pregnant and non-pregnant students is not sacrificed.

According to the literature reviewed here, progress toward this end has been slow in coming. Title IX has legislated progress, but the schools have yet to truly embrace the spirit of the law. Still, those who are referenced in this review outline plans and strategies for a future in which the schools could, in fact, begin to meet the well-documented needs of this underserved segment of the student body.

# COPING WITH TEEN-AGE PARENTS

## *(ED106919)*

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Presented at the Annual Conference
NATIONAL SCHOOL BOARDS ASSOCIATION

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It is estimated by the Child Welfare League of America that one out of every 10 girls in the United States will become a mother while of high school age or younger. The vast majority of these mothers keep their babies; therefore, many children in this country are being reared by mothers who are still of school age, almost 40% of whom are single.[1]

The pregnant teen-age girl has become a national concern of school systems, for statistics show that over 210,000 school-age girls give birth each year in this country, that their number is increasing about 3,000 annually,[2] and that pregnancy is the largest known cause for secondary school girls to drop out of school.

In California, the married mothers, ages 15-19, totaled 33,457 (65%); the unmarried mothers numbered 18,028 (35%) in 1973. Nearly one-third of all married teenagers had a baby in 1973. It is a fact that children born out of wedlock are, to an unusual degree, unplanned and often unwanted. These children are atypically frequent victims of parental and societal abuse.[3]

Developmentally, the teen-aged mother's self-concept may not be particularly well established. While most mothers are probably insecure in the parenting role with their first child, the young mother is even more insecure. This insecurity is particularly likely to occur in young mothers who live with their parents.

Problems involving "growing up," in which rebelliousness is combined with dependency, are a part of adolescence.

The adolescent girl who is pregnant has additional problems–the risk of her health and that of the baby, the interruption of her schooling, social and psychological risks related to family and peer relationships and her position of dependency. This combination of crises has a greater impact than some young girls can handle. Comprehensive services, then, are needed to meet the environmental, medical, social and educational needs of the individual girl. The steps taken to help her establish and reach realistic goals will determine whether or not she will eventually become independent. Consideration must be given that pregnant girls are being forced into adult responsibilities at a time when they are not yet out of childhood themselves.

In 1968, the California Education Code Section on physically handicapped minors was amended to include pregnant girls and to give school districts in California the responsibility and the funds for developing special classes or schools for teen-age pregnant girls. The special class makes it possible to provide more educational materials, equipment and interdisciplinary services. Adolescent pregnancy is a circumstance of life and requires the services of not only educators, but also of health, welfare, social agencies, etc.

A major defense of the program is the fact that refusing the pregnant girl the opportunity to complete her education is not only a denial of the girl's rights, it also damages both the girl and society through increasing her chances of unemployment, under-employment and thus, welfare and dependency.

### Program Components

San Mateo County, California, with a total area of 553 square miles, forms the major part of the San Francisco Peninsula. It is the second smallest county in land area within the state, but the fifth most dense, with a 1970 population of 556,234.

South San Francisco is well known as a major manufacturing and industrial center for this area of the state and is located contiguous to Daly City, immediately south of San Francisco. The South San Francisco Unified School District and the Jefferson Union High School District are located within the geographic area of these two "North County" cities.

The San Mateo Union High School District encompasses the area directly south of South San Francisco, and serves

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the communities of San Bruno, Millbrae, Hillsborough, Burlingame, San Mateo and Foster City. The major industry in this area is the San Francisco Airport. San Mateo Union High School District is considered a high-wealth district.

South San Francisco Unified School District and Jefferson Union High School District share jointly in the operation of the Baden High School's School-Age Mothers program, Jefferson students attending through an interdistrict contract with the South San Francisco District. This program is also operated in cooperation with the San Mateo County Department of Health and Welfare, which supplies some staff, and the services of the Information, Referral and Service Center for Pregnant Girls.

The San Mateo Union High School District's School-Age Mothers program is located, as is the South San Francisco/Jefferson program, in a continuation high school, Peninsula High School. State restrictions mandate that the School-Aged Mothers Programs "be separated from the regular day classes." The two programs I will discuss operate their school-aged mothers programs at the continuation school sites for this reason and because the continuation school programs have great flexibility.

Although operated differently, the goals and objectives of these two programs are similar and may be paraphrased in the following:

**GOAL**: To provide each pregnant student in the district an opportunity to earn a high school diploma and provide her with a marketable entry-level skill for post-secondary employment or further educational achievement.

**OBJECTIVES:**

1. To help each girl look positively and realistically at the present and future and to help her make the best choices in order to begin a plan for the future;

2. To encourage each girl to continue her education and graduate from high school, and to aid her in developing future educational or vocational plans;

3. To insure that psychological support and guidance are available and utilized by the girl;

4. To insure that prenatal and postnatal care information is available and obtained by the girl in an attempt to increase the chance for a normal pregnancy and childbirth, thereby protecting the health of both the mother and the baby;

5. To provide entry level skills in order to permit the individual to become economically self-sufficient; and

6. To provide the girl the opportunity to receive specialized instruction, guidance and care from numerous community organizations, specializing in support to minors and young adults, thereby demonstrating a sound interagency approach to the girl's needs.

To support these needs, the South San Francisco/Jefferson program has a staff of teacher and psychologist, supplied by the school districts, and a public health nurse and a social worker attached to the school program through the San Mateo County Department of Health and Welfare. The San Mateo District School-Age Mothers Program is staffed by a teacher, nursery supervisor, half-time school nurse, and half-time school social worker, as well as varied community support services.

In addition to early prenatal care, education and counseling, are career education counseling and training, postnatal care, family planning information, testing, group counseling, services to the baby's father and services to the girl's family. I believe it is vital to develop a program that will help the girls secure a life of dignity and self-worth, and imperative that the students know that someone does care.

Reimbursement in California at the present time can be received from state funds to the school districts through the provisions for funding of the physically handicapped. School districts may also receive funds under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Title 1, Education for the Disadvantages, local funds and community services.

Funding provided by the State of California, Education Code Section 6802, as amended by AB-1267, as of July, 1973.

| Programs Authorized | Ed. Code Section | State Support | Title 5 Admin. Code |
|---|---|---|---|
| Special Day Class<br>self-contained, 20 ADA | 6801.1 | $26,500 | 18102 |
| Individual Instruction | 6802.1 | 1,300 ADA | 18102.9 |
| Other Remedial Instruction | 6802.1 | 2,000 ADA | 18102.9 |
| Remedial Physical Education | 6802.1 | 775 ADA | 18102.9 |
| Driver Training | 17305.7 | 200 pupil | |
| Transportation | 6807.8 | 389 ADA | 18060 |

Determination should be made whether the program will include allowing the mother to bring her baby to school if she has not completed her education by the time the baby is born. The attendance of school-age mothers is very important to the financial part of the program because, of course, their attendance affects the amount of state support the school district will receive. Transportation is a necessary element of these school-age mothers programs, as the girls attend one school district-wide, and in some cases the distance is great. State funding for transportation is provided at $389 per unit of average daily attendance, but it is limited to the period between the fifth month of pregnancy and delivery, unless the distance exceeds two miles or unless a licensed physician and surgeon finds that walking is inimical to the health of the expectant mother or developing child. If a district contracts with a bus company for service, it should be pointed out that the number of passengers will vary from month to month, and the distance to be traveled will change regularly. It is recommended that small buses be used instead of one large bus so that girls will not have to travel far each morning and afternoon. Also, the large buses can be rough riding for the girls when they are in their final months of pregnancy.

If made a component of the program, an equipped nursery will be necessary. The nursery can also serve as a laboratory where the young mother and, at times, the father, learn to care for the baby. The mother very often has no one willing to care of her baby while she goes to school; therefore, the opportunity to being the baby to school with her will be another enabling factor toward her graduation from high school.

The South San Francisco/Jefferson program has a nursery-day care, originally funded by the State of California, and now by the San Mateo County Board of Supervisors as a child-care center. The center is housed in a nearby church and has a staff of two. This is a licensed day-care program for infants two weeks old to one year of age. There is a charge of 25 cents per day, with the money used for play equipment. Each young parent knows how the money is spent and why the fee is necessary.

The San Mateo Union High School District program has an infant center located on the school site. The nursery is funded by a local, private foundation and has a full-time director. The Infant Care Center is established through California SR-1860 which provides for establishment and maintenance of programs for the care and development of infants and the training of students in their roll as parents as part of the high school program. The director of the infant center provides a model for the care of and the interaction with the babies. Many young parents have had no previous exposure to parenting from their parents or other caretakers. The babies may stay in the center until the mother graduates.

Registration requirements for entrance into the School-Age Mothers Program include a verification of pregnancy signed by the parent or person legally responsible for the girl if she is unmarried, or by the girl herself if she is married.

Students must attend a minimum school day which is 240 minutes as defined by the California Administrative Code (Title 5, Section 2610).

Since pregnancy is not a permanent condition, the enrollment will not be stable. The girls enter and leave the program at various times throughout the year. The length of time a girl remains in the School-Age Mothers Program is dependent upon her delivery date. However, enrollment can be continued upon the written recommendation of a licensed physician and surgeon (California Administrative Code, Title 5, Section 3642). If this recommendation continues to be given by the doctor, it is possible for the girl to remain in the program until graduation.. Each school district should analyze this possibility and adopt a termination policy based upon the criteria of what would be most beneficial to the girl involved.

School districts in California have made the following policies regarding the length of time a student can be enrolled in a School-Age Mothers Program (pregnant minor class):

Until she delivers;

1. Until physically and emotionally prepared to return to regular school;*
2. End of semester following delivery;*
3. Graduation;*
4. Marriage;
5. Six weeks postpartum;
6. Maximum time one year;*
7. Doctor's recommendation.*

* Jefferson/Smith San Francisco program

Each district must decide which grades it can serve. The grade span in the State of California for these special classes varies to include students form the sixth through the twelfth grade. (San Mateo Union High School District contracts for interdistrict attendance with the elementary districts when such placement is necessary.) The majority of the programs serve students in grades 9 through 12.

Girls under the age of sixteen require quite a different program from those over sixteen. The concept of motherhood is often beyond the young girl; attention span in any subject area is noticeably shorter, more individual time of the teacher is required along with more repetition of course content; and her pregnancy is likely to be the result of disturbed family relationships; therefore, much more individual counseling time will be required.

In addition to providing the courses of study to enable the girls to continue where they left off in the regular program, some special courses are desirable and necessary. As girls are admitted at any time during the school year, educational demands upon the program are different from those normally encountered by regular school situations.

Appropriate instructional materials should relate to the student, provide for initial success, give a stimulating first impression, allow for absences, serve a diversity of learning abilities, and keep within the educational budget. The program, of necessity, must be designed on an individual basis, and each girl's academic work must be scheduled to start where she left off in the regular school program.

The credits earned in the special program must be equal to the district's standards so that they will be accepted by the girl's previous school should she return there to complete her high school work. It is recommended that the original school issue the diploma to the girls who complete requirements rather than having diplomas issued by a special program.

The academic program must be supplemented by counseling and guidance, instruction in the area of prenatal care, postnatal care, infant management and family planning (Administrative Code, Title 5, Section 3644). The Maternal-Child Health class should be designed specifically for the school-age pregnant girl. The content of the classwork must be flexible since the thirteen-year-old girls need different training from that required by the eighteen-year-old girls. An outline for such a class can include:

1. reproductive system
2. nutrition
3. pregnancy
4. labor and delivery
5. postpartum period
6. medical problems
7. infant-child care.

In addition to films, lectures and discussion period, a field trip to the obstetrics department of a local hospital can be an educational experience which will eliminate some of the fears which some of the girls will have. Other field trips depend upon the needs of the students and the offerings of the community.

It is especially important to stress nutrition and the necessity for a good diet during pregnancy. It is a known fact that the diet of teenagers is very poor, regardless of the socio-economic status of the family. The National Institute of Child Health reports evidence that:

1. When a fetus receives inadequate nutrition, the infant is born small; and
2. Up to 50% of prematurely born infants grow up with an intellectual competence significantly below that of others of that age.

A business training program should be designed individually for each girl so she may learn the skills which will help her to become economically independent.

Counseling is an important part of the curriculum. It is needed on both an individual and group basis to enable the girls to better understand themselves and provide the opportunity for sharing of mutual concerns. Individual attention imparts the feeling that someone cares. The program should be flexible enough so that the girls may request help for their crises and problems at any time of day.

Home Economics classes should be designed to meet the unique needs of the school-age mother. Course content offered in the home economics departments in the district should be made available in addition to the Maternal Child

Health class which should be required of each girl entering the program. The curriculum should include food classes, clothing, consumer education and child development.

Physical Education classes, including prenatal exercises, can be available to each girl. This program component is part of Remedial Physical Education (California Education Code Section 6802.1) and is funded by the state.

Many programs benefit from the help of volunteers. The South San Francisco/Jefferson program has developed "Friends to Teen-age Parents," a volunteer group formed to provide a program of volunteer adult support for isolated and inexperienced teen-age parents. Because young parents have significant problems to work through, their futures and the futures of their infant children will be determined by whatever degree of success they have while very young parents. Friends to Teen-age Parents hopes to increase the likelihood of successful parenting by establishing non-authoritarian friendships and sharing insights on managing households and child care. The program includes:

1. recruiting, training and supervision of adult volunteers wishing to provide friendship and assistance to single adolescent parents or couples with infants or young children;
2. efforts to reduce the incidence and impact of problems that frequently grow out of inexperienced parenthood, e.g. child neglect, abandonment, abuse, etc; and
3. making appropriate referrals to professional counselors in fields such as family planning, adoptions, health, welfare, education and employment.

The problem of the pregnant teen-age girl involves not only the girl but also the infant and the young father. To date, the father has had very little support in the way of specialized programs. He is seldom talked about and rarely studied. Statistics show that the father will be approximately the same age, at the same grade level in school, and in the same socio-economic status as the girl. The very obvious fact that for every teen-age mother there is a father, usually young, has been virtually ignored by social agencies and the helping professions. We have failed to see him as a person with feelings, sensitivities, in need of help.

The counseling service should be open to the father as well as the mother, schedule in conjunction with the girl, or on an individual basis. While much remains to be done to change attitudes toward the father, there is beginning recognition of the importance of involving him. The Vista Del Mar, California project, funded by the Children's Bureau, has demonstrated that most young fathers are responsive to offers of counseling services.

The San Mateo program conducts a bi-monthly meeting for the school-aged parents and the grandparents. The programming focuses on the roles and needs of young mothers, young fathers and their parents. The teacher also counsels fathers about further schooling, marital and family problems, and job placement.

Some of the problems which can be expected in a School-age Mothers Program may include

1. Excessive absences due to physical problems or baby's illness;
2. Depression caused by social and emotional problems;
3. Discipline problems;
4. Difficulty in maintaining incentive in the girls to study when the classroom atmosphere is more relaxed that what they have experienced in the regular school programs.
5. Pressure from some girls to try to change the decisions of others regarding keeping the baby or relinquishing it;
6. Dependent upon the ethnic makeup of the community, it may be necessary that special actions be taken to be sure that program is not labeled, as girls from all ethnic groups enroll in School-age Mothers programs.

There is the need for aggressive outreach techniques to reach other than middle-class white pregnant girls. Because agencies have a history of services to white girls, others who do know that an agency is there may well believe that it is not for them. Efforts to dispel this requires imaginative techniques to reach those who are being missed.

## Implications

The term "high risk" has been used extensively to apply to children of poor parents who, without environmental intervention, might come to be classified as mentally retarded. "High risk" is also now applied to mothers, particularly those girls who have a child before 15 years of age. The high-risk child of a high-risk mother, if born alive, is frequently premature and is usually of lower birth weight. It is a well-known fact that prematurity in itself is associated with a variety of handicapping conditions. The estimate of school-related problems in the premature

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population is as high as 75%.[4] Thus, the acceleration of teen-age births due to maturation at an earlier age is not only a social problem for the young people involved, but is a major contributing factor in the increase in infant deaths and in the numbers of school-related problems, particularly if the child also resides in poverty and suffers dietary, medical and social deficits.

This leads me to ask, why do we not give exposure to all students to a child developmental curriculum in junior high and senior high schools, particularly in those communities where the data show that teen-age pregnancies are likely to occur? Each student can profit from learning basic techniques of child growth and development, as well as parenting interaction patterns which can prevent or alleviate handicapping conditions in a child.

There are patently several benefits students may derive from an exposure to the way infants grow:

1. Such exposure may enhance the students' appreciation of human life and the marvelously equipped body most children are born with;
2. It is hoped that students will become aware of the enormous responsibility of becoming a parent, not only of providing economic goods but also of ensuring psychological support and response to the growing infant;
3. It is hoped that students will become sensitive to what it means to be a handicapped person and to regard the handicapped person as an individual who suffers some sensory lack of deficit but still possesses the same basic needs and desires as any other human;
4. It is hoped that students will become aware of the various roles and agencies in our society for infant well-being and care so that in case of need they may seek the services of these agencies, and, of equal importance, they may see the possibility of preparing for employment in child-related fields, either as full professionals or as supporting aides.

The elements of such an educational program can be found in the curriculum of "Exploring Childhood," Education for Parenthood, The Office of Child Development, and U.S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D.C. One objective of "Exploring Childhood" is to help students move from an emphasis on themselves to a concern for the young child and then to a new self-awareness. A key goal is to strengthen the family unit as the most important influence in a child's life.

San Mateo County Department of Health and Welfare cooperates with the South San Francisco Unified School District in yet another way. The program coordinator of the Health and Welfare Service Center for Pregnant Girls is teaching the course, "Understanding Adolescent Sexuality." Her intent is to prepare parents as the main sources of sex-related information for their children. The focus of this course is that sexuality is part of being human; love and trust are also involved. Because of these qualities, the topic of adolescent sexuality does belong in the home and can strengthen rather than divide families. The curriculum includes sexuality during the primary years, beginning at birth, and is open to parents residing in the district. This office also serves as a counseling agency for pregnant girls, their husbands or boyfriends, and is coordinated with the School-Age Mothers Programs located in San Mateo County.

The legal status of married students should provide the framework for policies within the schools. Restrictive policies run directly counter to the married students' legal right to attend the public schools.

Perhaps school boards should consider these questions asked by Donald R. Warren in the "Phi Delta Kappan":[5] What is the effect of pregnant and/or married students on the school climate and the face of student life? Do they have a maturing or disruptive effect? Are student-teacher relationships altered? Are the size of the student population, the location of the school (e.g. in an urban center or a small town), and the marital status of the pregnant student factors to be considered in the development of programs to meet the needs of teenage parents?

The past five years have been a marked expansion of the legal rights of teenagers. Most significant has been the reduction of the age of majority from 21 to 18 years in 40 states. In the area of medical care, several states have in the past few years, by statute or judicial decision, endorsed the "mature minor doctrine," under which a minor who is sufficiently mature to understanding the nature and consequences of medical treatment, may have such treatment without parental consent.

Courts have ruled that married students and pregnant students (married or not) can participate in extracurricular activities in those instances when:

1. School officials could not prove that "any inconvenience or damage" was "suffered";[6] and
2. No "disruption of or interference with school activities or threat of harm to other students" could be linked to the appearance of a pregnant, unmarried student at extracurricular activities.[7]

Compulsory attendance requirements for married students have generally been held invalid by the courts, but the courts have consistently upheld the power of school boards to regulate co-curricular activities of married students. Such activities, in order to be regulated, must not be part of the academic program.

School boards cannot legally suspend a married student from the public schools on the basis of marriage alone; however, they can legally suspend a married student temporarily if the district can show that the suspension is necessary for the orderly operation of the school. School boards cannot legally suspend or expel married students from the public schools because they have committed"immoral" acts unless the school board can show that the married students are of "immoral character." The fact that a recently married girl gives birth to a child which was conceived out of wedlock is insufficient evidence for legally suspending her from the public schools.

Some suggested guidelines, as suggested by B. B. Brown, Assistant Dean, Baylor University, Waco, Texas, to help bring school policies closer in line with each other and with the intent of the law, are:

1. Expulsion, suspension or discouragement from continued attendance in schools are not sound solutions to the problems of student marriages;
2. All school boards should study school-age marriage as it exists in each school as the first step in developing policies and practices with which both students and schools can live;
3. High school student marriages should be discouraged through classroom instructional activities on the many advantages of waiting until one has finished high school (with classroom instruction in marriage and family life problems as the broad frame of reference);
4. No restrictive policy should prohibit students from continued education after marriage. In no case should there be a policy to forbid married students the right to attend the public schools. It is recommended that district boards take steps to update their policies in this area;
5. State Departments of Education could help meet the problem constructively by developing regulations to be in use in all school districts of the state, thus eradicating inconsistencies in policies and eliminating expensive legal entanglement in meeting the needs of married students.

Also, for well over a century, local school officials and courts have tended to view unwed pregnant mothers as a "contaminating influence," analogous to an infectious disease. Importance must be viewed in the context of fundamental policy questions which pregnant students pose in challenging their exclusion from school. Such exclusion is in violation of rights to equal protection under the law if dismissal from school is solely because of pregnancy (Ordway v. Hargrove, Massachusetts, 1971).

The vast majority of schools in the United States do not have classes for pregnant teenagers, nor do they provide pregnant girls with a home teacher; exclusion from school is the most prevalent action taken.

I think that, as school board members, we should ask: should the public expect school policies, programs and attitudes that open futures, not close them; that promote not social isolation but inclusiveness and affection for learning among students, including those who are pregnant, unmarried and married? Inclusiveness, of course, was one of the objectives public schools were originally intended to realize. It was a good dream. It still is.

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2. "Education for the Pregnant Minor." Harriet Dohrmann and Helen M. Jones.

3. Public Education and Research Committee of California. Berkeley (PERC).

4. M. S. Meyer, editor. "Second Western Symposium on Learning: Early Learning": Western Washington State College. 1971. pp. 5-21.

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6. Wellson v. Calparaiso Community Schools, Indiana 1971

7. Ordway v. Hargrove, 1971.

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# AN ALTERNATIVE PROGRAM FOR PREGNANT SCHOOLGIRLS
## *(ED171073)*

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Paper presented at the 57th Annual International Convention, The Council for Exceptional Children, Dallas, Texas, April 24-27, 1979.

During 18 years of homebound teaching, many unique and amusing experiences have occurred. For example, being bitten by a goose, having 12 baby pigs climb into the car, and meeting a dog that only understood French. These 18 years have been enjoyable and rewarding. Homebound instruction can be easily incorporated into any school system. The primary presentation of this paper is the education of pregnant girls, but that program evolved from the homebound program and is still a part of homebound services.

The Layfayette Parish Homebound Program covers Grades K-12, and operates on a referral basis with the referral coming from the student's home school. A parent, teacher, counselor, doctor, etc. may make the initial request for a homebound referral. A student is eligible for home teaching if he or she is absent from or anticipates absences amounting to three consecutive weeks of school. The student is counted present daily in the home school while enrolled on the homebound program.

After the referral is received, the homebound coordinator contacts the physician to insure that the student is under a doctor's care, that the child should be out of school, and to determine if instruction is permissible. Then the teacher assigned to the student goes to the student's home school, contacts the classroom teachers and gets assignments for that particular student. A visit is made to the student's home, and the student and parent are made aware of certain procedures that must be followed.

These procedures include how the student should schedule his or her day and the fact that an adult must be in the home while the teacher is present. This is necessary because if something should happen to the student, the responsibility of the student's welfare would not fall totally on the teacher. Several students have been rushed to the hospital - one choking on ice, one with severe abdominal pains, etc. The parent was there: but what a situation to be all alone, especially in this day and time of law suits.

One particular homebound student was a seven year old who was diagnosed as emotionally disturbed. This child was left alone to supervise 15 month old twins. The case was reported to the special education supervisor and the teacher didn't stay to teach until the parent understood that someone must be home.

Funny things happen in home teaching, and also sad things happen. Sometimes one becomes such a part of the family that no secrets are withheld, even though it is wished that maybe they were. Some things happen that can't be repeated here, but a teacher's education can be broadened in areas other than academic.

Homebound teaching in a bar proved to be a most unique experience. After repeatedly passing a bar while searching for a given address, it finally occurred to the teacher that this was, indeed, the place where she should stop. The 8:30 a.m. knock on the door was answered by a half-clad girl. After the teacher explained who she was, the girl said, Wait, I'll get the kid's mother." As it turned out, there were two rooms behind the bar. The student lived with his family in one room and the bar waitresses slept in the second room. One of the regulations of the program is that the teacher and the student must be in the room alone. When this was explained to the mother, she said, "Well, you'll have to teach in the bar, that's the only private place at this time of day." The teacher and the student had a very successful year in the bar., He passed from 2nd to 3rd grade – even with the brightly lit Schlitz beer clock turning around and around....

Once the student is referred to the Homebound Program and doctor's permission received, the home teacher visits 2 or 3 times a week until the student can return to school. Concept teaching is used for the home program. The teacher visits for about an hour. During this hour, assignments are graded, any necessary help or tests given, and a new set of assignments written. Each student keeps an assignment book and all work covered on the program is written in this book. The idea of home teaching is not to

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give mountains of work or excessive testing but to try to give the students enough knowledge for them to comfortably fit back into their regular classroom. The home teaching situation is an unnatural situation and unnatural procedures should be followed if the best results are obtained. The physical setting is different, the physical well-being of a child is different, the relationship of the teacher to the number of pupils is different, the distractions are different, the requirements to follow routine are different, and the challenging stimuli are different.

The out of school teacher comes to a child with a definite procedure from which a plan can be formulated, tested, and changed if necessary. However, she should not come to the child with a plan into which he must fit. Plans will be different for a child with a room of his own than for a child who lives in a two room apartment with 4 people home all day. The home teacher teaches a child to make a schedule for out-of-school living. Such scheduling helps a child to become independent, self-directed and will permit creative learning. The teacher can quickly know exactly where and what a student does not understand.

When a homebound student is released by the doctor and returns to school, a letter is sent to the school stating the courses taken and the grades earned.

Pregnant girls have been taught in Lafayette Parish as homebound students since the early 1950's when Dr. Harley Smith was employed as Special Education Supervisor and devised the program. During the years, the program has experienced rejection, then acceptance. There were few pregnant girls receiving educational services in other areas of the state when the program began. Lafayette's program first started as a homebound program on a one-to-one basis in the girls' homes. This proved successful educationally and desirable in many respects resulting from the one-to-one relationship and its effect on the total student in the total setting. There were, however, disadvantages to individualized teaching in the home. Since a girl was isolated and confined, she lost touch with her friends. Because she was not required to leave her surroundings for academic learning, many times she socially withdrew to a great degree.

In October, 1970, due to increasing numbers on the rolls, it became apparent that another solution to the education of these students should be sought. A self-contained class was established to make it possible to reach a larger number of students, while still continuing to meet their needs in the teaching hours provided. The class was successful from its inception with the number of students increasing each year, in lieu of dropping out of school.

The school age pregnant girl faces many problems. She must change from an adolescent to an adult. She must function as a mother and perhaps as a wife, too. Her body undergoes great physical changes which are usually accompanied by emotional stress and other problems. An education is a great necessity for a pregnant teen-ager, not only because she might have a child to support, but also because it is about the only normal thing in her life at this time. Her studies become exceedingly important. When it seems it might be denied her, she realizes, perhaps for the first time, that an education is a valued possession. Most pregnant girls are sincerely grateful for the opportunity to continue their education.

The class was organized to accomplish the following objectives:

1. To keep a girl abreast of her classmates, academically.
2. To remove the girl from educational isolation at home.
3. To help keep up morale during a crucial time.
4. To see that proper medical care is received during pregnancy; perhaps healthier babies will result.
5. To give proper nutrition and child care information.
6. To prevent school drop-outs that might possibly become welfare cases.
7. To continue the girl's education in hopes she will become a contributive member of society.
8. To provide a measure of self-respect needed, not only during this time period, but throughout her entire lifetime.
9. To provide teaching for a larger number of girls while utilizing fewer teachers.

The class was designed to accomplish educational goals but it was soon discovered that the girls needed assistance in coping with their overwhelming problems associated with the untimely pregnancy before they could function academically.

Many girls were not receiving medical care when they first entered the class. Some were seven or eight months pregnant at the time they enrolled. It was decided that medical care was more important than math and english, so a close liaison was established with Charity Hospital. There were problems here also, since many parents refused to sign the papers permitting Charity Hospital to care of their daughters. Meanwhile, the pregnancy progressed. This caused some frightening experiences. Occasionally, a girl would go into labor and deliver before the medical issue could be resolved. Charity Hospital would accept her for delivery, but it was always felt it would have been more beneficial if the girl had received pre-natal care even if it only amounted to a single doctor's visit before delivery.

It was quickly realized that these young girls, (ages 12 to 18), about to become mothers needed much more information than academic instruction. They were teenage girls, who thought and acted like other teenage girls, pregnant or not. They loved the junk food and did not realize that a diet of chips and cokes do not contribute to a healthy pregnancy. These observation sled to the realization that nutrition must be incorporated into the program format.

Once or twice a year, girls were allowed to bring their babies to visit in the classroom. On these occasions, the teachers were aghast at the way the girls handled their babies and tend to the infants' needs. One girl related how her two month old child refused to eat fried chicken. Another told how her one month old baby slept between her and her sister every night. The danger of this was explained. Suddenly, it seemed that child care was more important to this class than English and Math.

There is a high percentage of child abuse among teenage parents. They do not understand the child and they are angry that adult responsibility prevents them from performing like other teenagers. When their own mothers say, "I'm not keeping that baby for you to go to a dance; it's your baby," then the young parent slaps the child.

Last week, in newspaper society news from the Louisiana State Capitol, attention was called to the name of a ten year old girl serving as a tea girl at a party. This particular name was of great interest because when she was three weeks old, her arms and legs were untied from the sides of her crib by the homebound teacher. Her teenage father had tied her because, he explained, she had been crying so much he was punishing her to make her stop. The young mother was in the corner of the room crying because she couldn't control him. She was a high school student scheduled for a lesson in her home that day. It was explained to the father that babies normally cry and they do not understand punishment. The child's name, being in the paper, was a gratifying sight because it meant she had survived having teenagers as parents.

Louisiana has a state law forbidding the teaching of sex education in the schools. Although this is a period of permissiveness in society with much exposure to sex related subjects in magazines and movies, it was found that the students, in special classes, were virtually ignorant of the reproductive and birth processes. Another instructional need beyond academics surfaced, the need for a professional nurse to answer their questions and explain what was happening (and had happened) to their bodies.

Because the special class teachers were aware of all these needs, they were trying to teach all of the academics, child growth and development, nutrition, labor and delivery. It was impossible to choose subjects of priority – they were all essential – but HELP was on the way! As a result of the close association with Charity Hospital, the teachers were invited to a consortium in New Orleans, sponsored by HEW.

The Division of Family Services, Public Health Units, gynecologists, Catholic Social Services, educators and others sent representatives to this consortium on teenage parenthood. The Director of Louisiana Health and Resources Administration issued a directive at the meeting that what is now known as the Division of Family Services, (The Louisiana Umbrella of Health and Helping Agencies), be responsible to see that committees concerned with teenage parents be formed in every parish throughout the state.

Our program is greatly indebted to the Lafayette Parish Division of Family Services for initiating the first meeting of agencies that were providing services to teenage parents. Some of these agencies were Lafayette Charity Hospital, The Public Health Unit, Division of Family Services, Lafayette Parish School Board, Family Planning, Catholic Social Services and others. The first meeting was very well attended and it was surprising how many different agencies touched the lives of these teenagers. Many of the agencies were unaware of the educational program offered even though the service was now about twenty years old. When the needs of the program were outlined, offers of help came forth quickly. The Division of Family Services offered to teach child growth and development one afternoon a week. The Parish Health Unit assigned two nurses to hold sessions on labor and delivery one afternoon a week. After this work started, the Home Economics Department of the local university, U.S.L., was approached and became part of the team in the area of nutrition. The teachers were able to relax now and resume their original roles, the teaching of academic subjects.

Contact with these service agencies on a regular basis has enabled the program to broaden to include speakers concerned with family planning, drug abuse, child abuse, etc. For example, the child growth and development instructor schedules a speaker from the Child Abuse Clinic and the nurse may bring someone in from family planning.

Three evaluation sessions were held each year with all agencies represented. Through these sessions, problems are solved and future plans are formulated. The meetings are held in the fall before school starts, in January to regroup the forces, if necessary, and in the spring for a final evaluation of the entire school year. The program has operated with the assistance of local and state agencies for the past three years. The girls in the program receive instruction and information that is invaluable to them and which is not available through the regular classroom in the public school system. Once, after the nurse took the girls to see the labor and delivery room in a local hospital, one girl was heard to remark, "Boy, if I had seen that before, I wouldn't be here now!"

A community volunteer comes once a week to teach creative crafts. Many girls have scheduled art or crafts as a part of their regular curriculum. This community volunteer makes it possible for them to meet scheduled requirements while at the same time enjoying social interaction. This group activity also affords them the acquisition of creative skills that will be useful to them for a lifetime.

A local senior citizens volunteer organization, RSVP, helps with home economics projects, primarily sewing. This service gives the girls one-to-one instruction that is so important when learning to sew.

The program offers a nursery on the campus. After the birth of the child, the young mother is often unable to return to her regular school, due to lack of child care. A nursery was established where students studying Vocational Child Care provide for the needs of the infants while their mothers attend school. The nursery is free of charge and young mothers, who are trying to complete their educations, have first preference. Children are cared for from one month to five years of age. A ninth grade girl can complete her education while her child is cared for in the nursery. Here, also, the Division of Family Services has proved to be a valuable ally. When a girl does not have transportation to the nursery, provided at school, the Family Service workers help to locate an acceptable day care center and provide financial assistance for this care.

The criterion for acceptance in the class is pregnancy. Most of the girls are unmarried. Generally, those who are married have done so as a result of the pressures of pregnancy. The present class enrollment is fifty (50). Approximately 25% are married.

## FORMAT

The Lafayette Parish Special Class for Pregnant Girls operates as an alternative educational program to the regular school program. A girl may choose to attend the special class during her pregnancy or continue in her regular school. The special class operates under the Homebound Department, Special Education, and is taught by four (4) homebound teachers.

The special class meets three (3) days a week. The mornings are devoted to academics and the afternoons to other types of instruction, pertinent to the girls' needs. The girls are taught on an individual basis and maintain the same subjects they were taking in their home school.

The girls are referred to the program by their school counselor. When the girl enrolls in the special class, she is still counted present in her home school each day. This helps her to feel she is still a part of her regular school and all records go through her home school. There is no mention of the special class.

Each girl has an assignment pad where she writes the work she is supposed to complete between classes. The teacher helps the girl make a schedule to follow so that routine and organization can be established. The girls receive any necessary explanation, instruction, and all testing during regular class sessions. Individual conferences are held during class sessions and all assignments checked.

The girls can ride the school bus to the special class and there is a hot lunch program at the school where the class is located.

Many community agencies participate and help to make the program successful. The Division of Family Service provides two workers, one afternoon each week, who teaches Child Growth and Development. This information is invaluable and necessary for these young mothers. Many have totally unrealistic expectations of their babies. The workers also bring in guest speakers who supply helpful information about services and benefits available. Last year, for example, representatives from Child Abuse, HELP, and Drug Abuse agencies spoke.

The Public Health Unit sends a nurse for an afternoon session on Wednesdays. The nurse informs the girls about the labor and delivery processes and also about their body changes during the pregnancy. Field trips are taken to the different community hospitals to acquaint the girls with the physical surroundings where their babies will be delivered. The nurse arranges guest speakers from community agencies, such as Family Planning and the local Health Unit. Literature and films are provided concerning prenatal and post-natal baby care. The nurse is available for individual counseling sessions. Many girls will not ask questions in a group situation, whereas, on an individual basis, they will voice confidences. The girls are made aware of many free programs that are available through the health unit. Some of these programs consist of the well-baby clinic, Crippled Children's Clinic, the WIC Program (Women, Infants and Children), and others. The nurse is a valuable asset.

The University of Southwestern Louisiana provides personnel from the Home Economics Department for sessions on nutrition. The personnel enlists university students to help conduct these sessions and these students receive college credits for their work. The experience derived from these classes is beneficial for the university students as well as the special class students. Due to the teaching methods employed by the Home Economics students, the girls gain valuable information in an enjoyable manner. Their habits change from "french fries to fruit."

The University found their participation with the class of such value, that they submitted an article concerning their contribution for publication to the Journal of Nutritional Education, published by the National Society of Nutritional Education. This endeavor reinforces the beneficial theory of community interaction.

After "Maslow's hierarchy of needs" was satisfied, more aesthetic needs were desired. A community volunteer was enlisted to teach arts and crafts. This was considered to be a skill useful now and through their entire lives.

One thing led to another and it was discovered that a local senior citizens volunteer association might be called upon to aide in other areas. The expertise and experience in the areas of sewing and child rearing might be an additional community resource to be utilized.

After a girl delivers, and her doctor releases her when her baby is approximately six weeks old, she returns to her regular school. This is sometimes a problem due to lack of child care. To help solve this problem, a nursery was established on the campus and is now in its fourth year of operation. The nursery is staffed by girls from the local high schools. These girls are enrolled in a Vocational Child Care course. There is a one-to-one relationship in the nursery and children are cared for from the ages of one month to five years. A ninth grade girl can finish her education while her child makes developmental progress for four years in the nursery.

The possibilities for growth in innovative programs are unlimited. Growth is based on cooperation between community agencies and the educational system. Resources are available. Investigation into these resources will yield help where help is needed!!!

## RESEARCH

In 1971 and 1973, accountability studies were done for the purpose of assessing certain accomplishments of the program, such as, job maintenance and years of education completed. One study was published in Louisiana Schools, a journal of the Louisiana Teachers' Association.

Research was accomplished through detailed questionnaires sent to students participating in the program since its inception. This research revealed that approximately 80% of the program participants completed their educations and were gainfully employed.[1]

## ORIGINAL QUOTES

**Case A**

"Whenever a student is confined to the home – whether it be from pregnancy or a serious accident, they need to further their education, whatever the case may be. We live in an age where education is not only important but absolutely necessary to keep up with our changing world. If at all possible, do not deny this opportunity to anyone. The student will eventually get over the pregnancy or illness, but the scar of improper education will stay with them all through their life."[2]

**Case B**

"To be pregnant, unmarried and only 17 is a great emotional trauma; and if such situations are not dealt with properly, it will be a scar one will never forget. At the time, I was so ashamed and depressed, that I just didn't care."[3]

**Case C**

"In evaluating the class, I think that the idea of having the girls meet together in a classroom is worthwhile to us because we can discuss our health questions concerning our pregnancies and learn from each other. The individual method teaching is great because it enables us to be more independent and do more for ourselves. The class itself is more interesting because the students are actually the ones working. The teachers are there to assist the students to understand and see that we progress."[4]

**Case D**

"I liked the class because in my case I couldn't go out and see people. Here at school there are other girls you can talk to and you realize that you aren't the only one. It makes you feel good to talk to other people about it."[5]

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1. John Thornton, Ph.D. and Pat Link, "An Evaluation of the Educational Program for Pregnant Girls in Lafayette Parish." Louisiana Schools, April, 1972, p 27.

2. Statement made on a questionnaire sent to Case A for research purposes.

3. Ibid

4. Ibid

5. Ibid

# TEENAGE PARENTS: AN EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM FOR INTERVENTION

### *(ED205854)*

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Paper Presented at Western School Age Parent Conference
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Teenage pregnancy is a current phenomenon which has reached "epidemic" proportions in this country. Recent statistics show that one girl in ten is a parent before age 18 with the trend on the increase (Nye, 1976). The Washington State teenage pregnancy rate has risen spectacularly: 1974, 14,794; 1975, 16,101; 1976, 16,130; and 1977, 17,576 (Mcanicke, 1978). Since 1968, births to young women under age 15 nationwide have risen 30%, and it is increasing most rapidly among girls age 14-16 (Furstenberg, 1976; Nye, 1976). At the January, 1979, Issaquah conference, "Children Having Children," Dr. Richard Soderstrom of the Mason Clinic and Planned Parenthood Advisory Committee, presented the statistic that in one east-side high school, 25% of the graduating senior young women and 15% of the adjacent graduating junior high girls had been pregnant. Abortions account for approximately half the number of total pregnancies in the teenage group. At a recent regional Child Welfare Conference in Seattle (May 1979), Faye Wattleton, national president of Planned Parenthood, gave the new figure, 94% of teenage mothers are keeping their babies; only four years ago, the figure was 85%. It is recognized that the social consequences are high. Life choices are limited, educational and career plans are jeopardized, the interrupted development, the effects in economic and living conditions, the effects on the family and the child, and the fact that teenage pregnancy is high risk, all lead to problems of a crisis nature in the young adolescent female (Furstenberg, 1976; Nye, 1976). Campbell (1968) writes this now-classic description, which eleven years later still appears valid:

> The girl who has an illegitimate child at the age of 16 suddenly has 90 per cent of her life's script written for her. She will probably drop out of school, even if someone else in her family helps to take care of the baby; she will probably not be able to find a steady job that pays enough to provide for herself and her child; she may feel impelled to marry someone she might not otherwise have chosen. Her life choices are few and most of them are bad (p.238).

The topic presented here is an outgrowth of interest for many years including involvement in the Seattle program going back to January, 1970, teaching in it from 1974-77, and participation in the advocacy organization. As an extension of recent graduate studies, an overview comparison was made of teenage parent educational programs with the approved program and funding of Vocation Home and Family Life Education. Soon after its completion, while involved in a class in crisis intervention, my thinking in the two areas, crisis counseling and teenage parent educational programs, began to merge and evolve into a rationale for an "ideal" model program.

I believe we can accomplish in an educational setting the fulfillment of the long-team goals of crisis counseling by helping the teenage mother to grow from the experience and increase in mastery of her coping behaviors and to gain greater self-awareness (Getz, et al, 1977).

Growing interest in this topic is evidenced by the number of other related events taking place in this state during the past year.

Jun. 1978

- Preliminary 3-state planning committee meeting in Portland to prepare for this conference.

Continuing Research and Development

- Batelle study under way in Seattle, Adolescent Socialization and Heterosexual Behavior, Michael Micklin, Elizabeth Thomson, and Jacqueline Gardner.

- WWU study on adolescents' use of contraception by Geo. Cvotkovich
- UW prevention study by Steve Schinke

Sep. 1978

- WACSAP conference in Yakima

Sep. 1978

- WSU project for 6 teenage parents–paid tuition and expensesFall 1978
- Barbara Radford, WSU grad student, did a study of the Seattle district policy regarding pregnant students

Nov. 1978

- Study committee on Seattle School Age Parent Program was formed

Nov. 1978

- State Board of Education member, Grant Anderson of Tacoma, was appointed to the Adolescent Parenthood Project of the National Association of State Boards of Education; purpose, to study policy and programs

Dec. 1978

- Overview study completed; distribution, estimated 600+ in this state and others; has been used to document what is happening in teenage parent education and to show need for improvement of program and services

Jan. 1979

- Beginning of International Year of the Child

Jan. 1979

- Issaquah "Children Having Children" Conference arranged by Jill Jennings for purpose of educating administrators and others to the problem

Jan. 1979

- Interest shown by Senators Eleanor Lee & Gould in Olympia: DSMS services to teenage parents, Resolution 79-14.

Jan-Mar

- March of Dimes, Pierce Co., in-service to educators and others

Feb. 1979

Job Corps project for teenage parents under way in Kent

Feb. 1979

- Nurses Continuing Education Conference on Teenage Parenthood in Richland, arranged by Carol Poole, WACSAP board member

Mar. 1979

- First PASCAP Newsletter

Mar. 1979

- School-age parents from several programs met at Seattle program to discuss needs

Mar. 1979

- Visit of Dr. Lulu Mae Nix, director of the HEW Office of Adolescent Pregnancy and Parenthood to Tacoma

Mar. 1979

- Carol Poole, WACSAP, participated in reorganization of NACSAP in Chicago

Apr. 1979

- Advisory committee met to consider new teenage parent program in Bellingham

Other school districts have made inquiries

Apr. 1979

- WACSAP received WHEA Group Contributing to Betterment of Family Living Award in Richland; accepted by president, Martha Lamberts

May 1979

- Nurses Continuing Ed Conference in Kenmore

May 1979

- Regional Child Welfare League Conf in Seattle

May 1979

- Teenage Parents (students) Conference in Tacoma

May 1979

- Seattle program study committee completed its draft letter to the superintendent

May 1979

- Follow-up to the Issaquah Conference sponsored by Bellevue PTSA

Jun. 20-23

- Western School Age Parent Conference in Portland

Though not exhaustive, the list shows the extent of local activity. Now is a critical time for consolidating resources to address the issues relating to prevention and to assist programs to enable the young parents to become responsible and independent.

## Teenage Pregnancy Precipitates Crisis

### Developmental tasks interrupted

The developmental tasks of adolescence are interrupted as new parenting responsibilities take precedence. (Havighurst [1972]), has described them:

> The tasks the individual must learn...that constitute health and satisfactory growth...arise at or about a certain period in the life of the individual, successful achievement of which leads to his happiness and to success with later tasks, which failure leads to unhappiness in the individual, disapproval by the society-and difficulty with later tasks (p. 2).

The developmental tasks arise from the inner and outer forces of physical maturation, cultural pressure, and personal values and aspiration. He emphasizes capturing the "teachable moment."

Havighurst divides a lifetime into separate stages. As an example, the chart below summarizes generally those tasks of adolescence and their educational implications:

| Developmental Tasks Of Adolescence | Educational Implications |
|---|---|
| 1. Achieving new and more mature relations with age-mates of both sexes | Failure can lead to unhappy adult life. Educational institutions are skill-building laboratories |
| 2. Achieving a masculine or feminine social role | More difficult for girls; can be helped to think out choices |
| 3. Accepting one's physique and using the body effectively | Teach normality of variability; examples from literature can be used |
| 4. Achieving emotional independence of parents and other adults | Study conflict of generations in literature; teachers play useful role in weaning |
| 5. Preparing for marriage and family life | Best preparation, complete #1, #4; Home and Life Family Class |
| 6. Preparing for an economic career | Scientific vocational guidance |
| 7. Acquiring a set of values and ethical system as guide to behavior; ideology | Develop express and instrumental values, learn to apply; literature |
| 8. Desiring and achieving socially responsible behavior | Study and improve the local community; study regional literature |

The significance to teenage parent counseling and education, is to help students to work through the developmental tasks of their adolescent stage while at the same time work through the necessary tasks of the intruding and overwhelming pregnant and parent stages. For many young people, not achieving the developmental tasks at the appropriate time can lead to crisis.

Dr. Arthur Elster, Chief of Adolescent Service, Madigan Army Medical Center until recently, spoke to the Fall, 1976 Conference of the Washington Alliance Concerned with School-Age Parents: "The attainment of the developmental tasks is essential if the adolescent is to achieve a well-integrated state of adult mental health. . .a program to care for the pregnant teenager must keep this psycho-social construct in mind." These tasks are accomplished through

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behavioral experimentation, both physical action and fantasy. Adults working with the adolescents must allow for the inconsistencies as they try different roles in adapting their behaviors to accomplish the task.

How does pregnancy interfere with adolescent, psychosocial development,a nd what is the extent and duration of the potential interruption in development? Dr. Elster, from his experience, suggests four mechanisms of interference in development. First, there is the social labeling--"promiscuous," "adult,"--these young women are expected to have adult behavior and knowledge. Second, either they are forced to be dependent on family with resulting tensions or the crisis of pregnancy forces them to be more independent and they are likely to be responsible including the use of birth control and remaining in school. Third, they may be inhibited in behavioral experimentation. Expecting adult behavior, pregnant teenagers are not allowed the luxury of experimentation and making mistakes or they risk being labeled irresponsible adults. Fourth, the pregnancy forces them to focus their attention outward and they avoid dealing with their psychosocial problems which delay their emotional growth.

There are some young women that appear to be handling their personal development tasks and their parenting tasks at a satisfactory if not an optimum level. For those who make progress only from an intensive supporting environment, this help should be provided.

**Consequences far-reaching--**

The far-reaching consequences of teenage pregnancy are well-documented by Nye (1976) and can be summarized briefly.

**For the mother**. If she remains in school, interruptions due to demands of the child make it more difficult to study. Being a new mother interferes with dating and marriage; if she does marry, it will likely be to a young man who also lacks the education and experience necessary to get a steady, well-paying job. Care for the child limits personal freedom if she is on her own, or if she lives with her parent.

**For the child**. The child of a white mother, age 15, is two-and-a-half times more likely to die as a child of a mother age 25-30. Because the mother has not reached full biological maturity and may not have adequate nutrition and medical care, the baby may have developmental defects and a greater occurrence of mental retardation, underweight and birth injuries. There is the greater possibility of child abuse and neglect when the parents are teenagers, probably due to unrealistic expectations and frustration.

**For the father**. If he takes hold of his responsibilities, he may need to interrupt his education. He may not have a strong emotional commitment to the young mother and he may not continue in the relationship or with his support. As a father he has legal responsibility for the support of his child; many also feel the moral responsibility.

**For the maternal grandparents**. Their plans for the use of their time and financial resources are affected if they should choose to help support their daughter and her baby. Mother and grandmother are often in conflict over the care of the child. They may be disappointed in the changed dreams for the daughter's future and also in their role as grandparents.

**For the entire population**. With the financial costs of welfare, medical;, disability, and special programs, teenage pregnancy precipitates crises affecting all of society.

**Crisis actuate special needs--**

The crises or consequences or interrupted tasks of the pregnant and parent teenager all result in special needs. The identified needs appear to fall in these four broad general categories:

1. Health--knowledge, monitoring, family planning, babies health needs

2. Social-emotional, crisis counseling

3. Financial--welfare, other, childcare; job

4. Educational-knowledge and skills of homemaking and parenting; academic, vocational; graduation

Student-perceived needs will be addressed in a later section.

**Decision-making--**

Probably the most immediate crisis faced by the pregnant teenager is the necessity of confronting the reality; crisis counseling is to help her in dealing with the many immediate decisions that she must make. All options must be presented.

**Abortion**. If decided upon, it is easier to end the pregnancy in the first three months. Nye writes (1976).

> Compared to having a baby while in school, the consequences of ending the pregnancy are less for most young people. The medical risk is less than having a baby. For most girls (and others) the consequences of bearing a child are much greater than preventing the pregnancy by contraception or ending it. But although others are affected by her decision. the pregnant girl is the one who must decide. For some with strong religious or other feelings against abortion, the emotional effects may be considerable. For some, these feelings will

> outweigh the difficulties of having a baby under adverse circumstances and the decision will be to give birth to the child (p. 15).

**Adoption**. This may be the best alternative for mother and baby. However, giving up the baby can precipitate a severe emotional crisis as she is torn with the pressures from friends and family and with grief over her impending loss as opposed to the knowledge of the long-term responsibilities if she chooses parenthood.

**Marriage**. The strength of the emotional commitment, age and maturity are considerations in making this choice.

**Single parenthood**. This is now the choice of the majority of young women under 18 who do not choose an abortion.

**Initial action**. Colleague, Jan Piper, describes her experience working in the Los Angeles Planned Parenthood Clinic with the young teenager who presents herself as possibly pregnant.

> First, the client visits the lab where a pregnancy test is made. Then she is taken to a private room where they talk. The results of the test are within the probability of 10% accurate if showing positive or negative. If positive, the client is asked the question, "What do you think you want to do?" She is asked her circumstances. Alternatives are given if asked: Adoption, keeping baby, or if abortion, Planned Parenthood will help to arrange. If age 16 or older, her parents would not have to know. If the test is negative and she wants contraception and is 16 or older, that can be prescribed. Referrals are made for counseling, medical care, other needed services (Interview, 1978).

Whether the counseling is first done in a Planned Parenthood agency, other agency, or by a trusted physician, minister, school counselor, teacher, or other helper, part of the referral can be to a school program. A special program for teenage parents can achieve the goals of crisis counseling in terms of growth and new behaviors in coping and enable students to continue their education.

## An Educational Program Intervention to Meet the Needs

Types of comprehensive programs to teenage parents are summarized from West-Anderson (1978).

1. Health-based model, attached to a medical facility or health department
2. School-based model administered by a public school system
3. Social service model, sponsored through a welfare or counseling agency
4. Non-profit Corporation model which attempts to draw together all of the first three models (p. 52-53).

The concepts synthesized in the model diagram and chart, a product of interaction with several hundred students and professionals and exposure to the literature, proposes a Vocational Home and Family Life school-based model.

## Conceptual model: focus on the student-clients and their needs--

The conceptual model attempts to show how a program with a core of Home and Family Life education integrates with all other areas of concern with teenage parent education and services. For a limited period of time, through an intensive immersion into activities to apply the knowledge and skills of homemaking and parenting, and by capitalizing on the intrinsic motivation inherent in wanting to build a good life for their child, the student grows in confidence and self-concept. The diagram, in process, points to some of the possibilities of interaction between Home and Family Life Education and all other program components.

**Vocational Home and Family Life Education**. The learning activities focus on education for the well-being of individuals and families. In recent years it has made an increasingly larger commitment to the teenage parent population. Federal funding for these programs requires an approved vocational program. Goals and objectives are monitored at the district and state level.

Curriculum guides have been developed by several teenage parent programs. However, I want to share with you the philosophy, goals, and objectives of the recently developed curriculum guide from Seattle Public Schools. Examination will point up how an established curriculum for the regular student is immediately relevant to meeting the identified needs for knowledge and skills of young families to develop independence and responsibility.

What specific activities are chosen to meet the objectives is beyond the scope of this conceptual paper and is a part of program development and implementation., The activities, however, are likely to be highly motivating because they are centered in the students immediate concerns for knowledge and skills to take care of self and baby. It is APPLICATION of education to REAL LIFE.

**Health education**. Health care professionals have emphatically pointed out the need for early intervention with the pregnant teenager. Dr. Mark Smith, speaking on intervention strategies at the recent nurses continuing education conference in Kenmore, pronounced, "There is no debate–vigorous pre-natal care is needed!" Enrolling in the program early in the pregnancy after initial decisions have been made allows the public health nurse or other health professional to maintain continuous assessment and monitoring of the health status of the student. If not already linked up to an obstetrician, appropriate referral will be made.

With awareness of bodily changes a constant reminder, it is the "teachable moment" to impart needed health knowledge. Nutrition, pre-natal development, and preparation for delivery topics prepare them for new roles as parents.

Health counseling requires much time. Problems such as anemia and toxemia affect a higher percentage of teenagers and they need the explanations and assurances.

Learning child health care and how to deal with the health care system, and how to deal with their own health needs are important goals, as is education in family planning.

**Building a peer support system**. Referring to the conceptual model, the third emphasis penetrates throughout the program. Experienced parents know the joy and excitement of observing the daily development of their new child and sharing these early experiences as well as discussing problems with their friends. During their matriculation in the program the students can be encourage to build this support and take it along when leaving the program.

Listed are some of the expected benefits:

1. Helping someone else to work through a problem builds self-respect and self-confidence which leads to improved self-image.

2. Peer teaching stimulates learning; when students know concepts well enough to explain it to someone else, they generally will have learned it better.

3. It gives opportunity to develop leadership: this has transfer value to vocational plans.

4. By developing adequacies in support and by maintaining contact, help is available in the future, long after termination in the program.

5. Peers can be a source of contacts in the future–for jobs, services, other needs, including social contacts.

6. Baby-sitting and other services may be shared.

In the March, 1979 Pacific Alliance Concerned with School-Age Parents, Newsletter, Julie Gomoll, a parent at age 15, described her work in creating a city-wide network in Portland: "I think we all need to take a new direction in our counseling and guidance..when I share information with other caregivers, it gives me a sense of support and reassurance...mothers can find self-sufficiency for themselves."

**Priorities**. Wide variation in energy levels of pregnant women can be verified by those educators who have had pregnant teenagers in class. With their educational goals a lesser priority as they work towards "getting their lives together," for a few weeks the half-day of Home and Family Life education coordinated with the health program may be all they can handle. For a limited time these first three emphases should be allowed to take educational priority; it is teaching responsibility to allow the student to give major attention to the priorities that will enable her to prepare to function optimally in her new role of parent.

For those who have more energy as often happens in the later trimesters of pregnancy, they should be allowed the flexibility to handle as many extra academic credits as they can manage.

**Vocational**. Teenage parent educators have observed that the child is a powerful motivator–the young parents want to be able to provide a comfortable life-style for their child. As students begin to solve their problems and they are linked up to needed services, they are ready for activities in career/life planning. Sometimes short-term goals of getting a job and earning money are more important to them then the long-term goals of education or training for meaningful work. These goals can be achieved through classes, workshops, counseling, class discussion, activities and experiences which offer opportunities to build self-confidence, social skills, and work skills; a Home and Family Life program provides for both.

Career planning with teenage parents means helping them through guidance activities to take charge of their lives. Assessment through objective tests with follow-up counseling can help in post-program plans and placement.

**Academic**. Pregnant and parent young women experience both special emotions and special needs for all kinds of new knowledge. These emotions provide intrinsic motivation. One former special education student was especially motivated to learn to read better so that she would be able to share books with her child. In Language Arts, creative emotional expression can be encouraged. Educators working in teenage parent programs have been privileged to share some deep experiences with students creations in poetry and writing. Curriculum materials published by teenage parent educators, such as Jeanne Lindsay (1977), were developed to reinforce the learning activities in health and parenting classes. Science and math must be practical and relevant (budgeting). All subject areas should include career education activities. GED is a viable alternative for the older teenage lacking in credits.

**Students**. What are the perceived needs of the teenage parents themselves? There were two formal opportunities this year in Washington to obtain input from students. First, a school-age parent survey was prepared by the Seattle District Office of Instructional Program Evaluation and presented to the study committee for the Seattle program in April, 1979. Needs identified by at least 20% of the 35 respondents from regular and alternative high schools included childcare, transportation, financial counseling, personal counseling, relationships, and problems in attending school every day.

On another occasion in March, a meeting was held at the Seattle program with guests from the teenage parent programs in Yakima, Everett, Bellevue, Renton, and Puyallup for the purpose of stating their needs and sharing them with visitors from HEW, Washington, D.C. Listed are the concerns brought up at that meeting;

Education and a facility
Childcare, babysitting; infant care
Transportation
Budgeting, Consumer Ed
Legal assistance
Counseling
Pre-natal health education
Child Development class
Education electives
P.E. exercises; prepared childbirth
Adequate housing
Money; career training; jobs
Availability of regular high school classes
Medical care for child with special problems
Childcare during illness of child
Special school during pregnancy because of "put-downs"
Welfare
Boyfriend responsibility

With appropriate administrative assistance and support and with the utilization of available community resources, this proposed program model provides for the identified needs.

**Individual Educational Program (I.E.P.)**. Realistic exit goals, student learning objectives, counseling goals...need to be established as soon as possible after initial assessment at entrance to the program. An action plan and periodic checks on progress will assure students of staff interest in their achievement and the mutual accountability for reaching goals.

**Duration, placement, outreach**. There must be a comfortable supportive, yet intensive learning environment with all energies focused on the goals of helping the students work through their appropriate developmental tasks of adolescence and responsible parenthood. Placement limited to three semesters--for some, less time may be required--will give a reasonable time for all services to be focused on the individual and for the student to take charge of her life with support from peers and counselors. During the entire matriculation, students will be helped with future life planning, and near the time of termination, appropriate future placement needs must be assessed with the use of suitable academic and psychological instruments.

After the student has returned to high school or has graduated, contact should be maintained by the counselors, and a support group can be scheduled to meet monthly for social and educational purposes.

It is also appropriate that an outreach group for young fathers be held regularly to meet their parenting educational and emotional support needs.

**Secondary education models to incorporate--**

The educators model is proposed because all the identified needs are functions of education or can be easily accomplished in an educational setting; this assumes that the student is already linked with established medical resources. Home and Family Life educators are already keyed in to maximal utilization of community resources.

With the programming allocations of time at half-day of Home and Family Life education and a half-day academic, whatever model is chosen must be kept to manageable proportions. In larger school districts there may need to be several locations. Flexible, individualized programming in a supporting environment provides the climate for reaching objectives within a reasonable time. A teacher-student ratio of 1:20 (maximum) allows for daily personal contact as opposed to the "getting-lost-in-the-cracks" syndrome often found in large, institutionalized programs. One kindergarten teacher even suggested a ratio of 1:10. We are dealing also with the child; helping their child to achieve his/her potential with prevention of learning problems is a part of the experience provided for in the program.

The proposed program model will fit into any of the secondary models.

**Alternative high school**. Teenage parent programs in Washington State following this model include Auburn, Bellevue, Clover Park, Edmonds and Federal Way (Puffert, 1979). Alternative high schools within the last decade have been the most open to flexible individualized programming and have allowed for the attendance needs of the pregnant teenager.

**Alternative school, self-contained**. Programs following this model, in addition to Seattle, include Yakima, Kennewick, and Everett (Puffert, 1979). However, the last two are under the supervision of the district vocational director; though they may be lacking in offering a complete program, it is expected that matriculation will be for a limited period of time. A Home and Family Life Program plus community resources results in objectives reached.

**Mainstreaming in the regular high school**. Programs in the state following this model include Longview and Mt. Tahoma, which is under Bates Vocational-Technical Institute for vocational funding (Puffert, 1979). Trends observed in teenage parent education and services in the past decade have seen the closing of many homes for "unwed mothers" and the rise of alternative education for those students who did not fit the regular pattern. After Title IX, a few elected to attend regular classes; now they are more visibly evident. It is suggested that the "spirit of the times" is much different than at the beginning of this decade; it is more acceptable for the pregnant and parent students to remain. During this same period of time there has been the push for mainstreaming, or normalization. In the regular high school setting the student is not isolated from peer activity characteristic of that stage of adolescence.

Offering the full services of a high school campus is more efficient and cost-effective. Students have access to all curriculum offerings and can take advantage of as many activities as they can handle.

**Policy in school districts**. Title IX gives the right to pregnant students not be excluded from the regular program.

In localities where special programs exist, including the Seattle district, practitioners have encountered the "push-out syndrome." That is, the visibly pregnant young woman is vigorously encouraged by administrators uncomfortable in dealing with them, to transfer to the special program, or to drop out of school.

Concerned over the question of equal education and Title IX, Radford (1979) investigated policy in the Seattle School District. Analyzing data from structured interviews she came to these conclusions:

1. At the administrator and practitioner level, there is a misunderstanding of policy.

2. There is bias.

3. There is incomplete knowledge of school-age parenthood.

4. There is lack of confidence in school counselors to counsel with the pregnant student.

5. It is a low priority item in terms of outdated policy and lack of guidelines and training.

Some of her recommendations, included in the final report of the district study committee, were to mandate in-service training for school personnel and develop a manual; review attendance policy to create a more consistent district-wide policy considering pregnancy related absences; and to make all options known through an "itinerant counselor" position.

Apparently the policy issue has surfaced in many areas of the country. A news release from the National Association of State Boards of Education (Nov, 1978), reported that the Department of Health, Education and Welfare has awarded them a three-year grant to study policy. In collaboration with the National Conference of State Legislators, the objective is to develop and implement effective policies and programs, and develop technical assistance media and documents. Our programs can expect to benefit from this project.

**In-service**. The argument is often given that students will not feel comfortable in the regular school setting because of self-consciousness feelings about their body image and because of attitudes of hostility ("put-downs") on the part of staff. There is clearly a need for information and sensitivity. Hostility must be changed to sensitivity on the part of staff. Administrators and support personnel need to be more informed on procedures so that students receive appropriate support and advocacy.

**Staff**. The needs of the teenage parent are unique and complex. With a broad range in age, grade placement and level of academic skills in addition to all the psychosocial needs, all staff must be willing to "reach-out" and to acquire counseling skills.

Walsworth (1979) provides insight into the optimum climate for staff and students to cope with their needs with twelve unique case histories.

**Home and Family Life interaction with other services–**

Among the programs in Washington State, there is considerable variation in how the objectives are met and how they are emphasized (Puffert, 1979). A brief description of the Mt. Tahoma program will serve to illustrate how a teenage parent program totally immersed in Home and Family Life Education can operate.

Located in a portable at Mt. Tahoma High School, the students spend half a day there and the other half day in their regular high school. They participate in some of the so-called "traditional" activities of home economics–food preparation and nutrition, clothing projects and maintenance. But, the main focus is on the parent-child interaction. In the first part of the morning session the children are "enjoyed," involved actively, and observed as they are seated in a comfortable living-room-like setting. Practical sharing of experiences and knowledge develops into mutual support and appreciation. During the last part of their session the children move over to the nursery side of the portable where students from other Tacoma child development classes and psychology classes work as student aides under the trained childcare teacher/aide in a practicum experience, usually for about one period a day for two weeks. The teenage parents are then free to consider other issues in the curriculum (see goals and objectives).

The conceptual model shows the interaction of Home and Family Life with other services and with community resources. Again, referring to the Mt. Tahoma program, Margaret Clogston, teacher-coordinator, has utilized the conceptual model to report back to her advisory committee. In the half-day program she works with one teacher-aide who supervises the student-aides in the nursery; the talents of the aide in infant water safety are an added bonus. There is no academic component to the program; here the student takes responsibility to work out her own academic credits, usually with her regular high school.

Her chart indicates a heavy usage of community resources coordinating into the program.

Childbirth Education Association
Educated Childbirth
Public Health Department
Family Health Education
Public Health Department
Nutrition
Public Health Department
Counseling
Children's Home Society
Counseling and Intake Screening
Bates Counselor
Group Counseling
Christian Counseling Services

Involvement with school administrators and support personnel to solve problems may have preventive effects.

Leona Naves, Longview Home and Family Life educator, points out the benefits of mainstreaming in prevention efforts- "Students working as child care aides are dealing with reality...changing the crappy diapers...the spitting...the need to give attention...can't just take off and leave them..." The student, more deliberate in the decision to parent, usually decides not to be tied down now to those responsibilities.

**Evaluation**. Individual objectives met and students have increased in mastery of living skills, students have grown in self-awareness and self-esteem, and they are functioning independently and with self-and-other responsibility.

**Conclusion–**

Several years ago, Janet Forbush, former director of the National Alliance Concerned with School-Age Parents, thinking that establishing an advocacy organization would solve the "problem," made the statement that she expected to be out of a job in five years. With the increase in sex education, with the availability of contraceptives, and with the availability of legal abortion options, it was thought that there would no longer be a significant incidence of teenage pregnancy. Recent data has shown these assumptions cannot be taken for granted (Wernicke, 1978).

Teenage parent programs based on social services, medical services, and some of the general educational programs have been studied and appear to show a reduced rate of recidivism. Programs based on Vocational Home and Family Life Education have been initiated in the 70's in this state and have worked quietly accomplishing their objectives with parent students and their babies efficiently and cost-effectively. Support has varied according to the commitment of community advisory groups and school administrators. Utilizing the model based on Home and Family Life Education, which teaches the needed knowledge and skills and utilizes the resources of the community, we can intervene to enable teenage parents to successfully meet their developmental tasks of adolescence and parenthood. Then they can cope confidently as they guide their children through their developmental tasks of pre-school and beyond. Probably in no other educational program do we meet today's crises and also see direct benefits upon the next generation!

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# ADDRESSING TEENAGE PREGNANCY AND PARENTHOOD
## *(ED248607)*

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Do pregnant students drop out of school in your community, or are they encouraged–really encouraged–to continue their education? Does your board have a policy that recognizes the legal rights of pregnant students to stay in school?

### Basis in Law

Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments mandated that pregnant students and those already parents have the same rights to public education as all other students. Exclusion from programs, courses, or extra curricular activities was specifically prohibited.

"In the early 1970s, it wasn't unusual for principals to bar a pregnant student from walking across the stage to pick up her diploma," said Rodney Davis, director of information services for the Dallas Independent School District. "Today, our High School for Health Professions houses a center program for pregnant girls. The epidemic proportions of teenage pregnancy are being addressed."

### Scope of Problem

Epidemic, trend, or however it is described, teenage pregnancy is a national problem not limited to low income or low achieving youngsters. Statistics reveal that one in ten teenagers becomes pregnant each year. Some opt for abortion, some marry, and some keep their babies (who too frequently are underweight and unhealthy due to the mother's poor nutritional habits), and many drop out of school.

"It's difficult to come up with real statistics on why students drop out of school," said Joan Hartman, Fairfax County (Va) Public Schools teacher who heads the two-year-old teen parenting program at Groveton High School, one of 23 county high schools. "Pregnant students just seem to disappear. The real reason isn't always known," said Hartman.

Margaret Dunkle, a consultant to the Council of Chief State School Officers Research Center on Sex Equity, told a gathering of state education officials in January, "Pregnancy remains the main reason why teens drop out of school."

### Why Schools Get Involved

Concern about dropout rates is one reason schools start to address the problem of teenage pregnancy. Public schools have the mission of educating all students to be productive and contributing members of society.

When schools ignore the special needs of students who are pregnant or who already are parents, the youngsters drop out and usually require public assistance. Without the skills to get and keep a job, as well as parenting skills, these youngsters and their children can get caught in a perpetuating lifestyle. The question school boards face is: Should educational opportunities be less available to students who are pregnant or who are school-age parents?

### Getting Started

In 1981, The Rand Corporation published *The Response of the Schools to Teenage Pregnancy and Parenthood.* One conclusion reached in the report was that most school programs addressing the needs of teenage parents are spearheaded by one or more committed individuals, usually someone from the school system or the social service sector. These are the people who have seen the problem first-hand, know what help is needed, and have the energy and determination to do something about it.

"Gifted and talented students and the learning disabled have advocacy groups," said Fairfax's Hartman, whose efforts paid off in the Groveton program. "But the teenage mothers are the forgotten many," she added.

### Identify Local Needs

A built-in constraint, however, is community response. Teenage pregnancy, and teenage sexuality in general, are controversial issues. They relate to community, family, and religious values. Teenage pregnancy still is considered by many people to be the result of immoral behavior and a family responsibility. It is essential, therefore, that each school system assess its community's needs and develop and support those programs that address local needs in the context of community values as well as the law.

Some ways to assess the local problem are to look at the reasons for school dropouts, how the home-bound instruction program is being used, what guidance counselors *really* are advising students to do, statistics on live births to teenage girls, and data on public assistance to teenage parents. Discussions with community experts can help identify the scope of the problem and can result in cooperative planning and support.

"A community network is important," said Hartman. "It's the only way for the program to do what it needs to do, gain credibility, and increase support."

## Program Options

School systems often rely on home-bound instruction to fulfill their legal responsibility to educate all students. Depending on state law, however, school systems can be required to provide as little as one hour a day of instructional time.

While home-bound instruction can be a real benefit to the motivated student who physically cannot attend school, it falls short of meeting the needs of the pregnant teenager who lacks motivation and also has an array of other concerns with which to deal.

"Our students have the option to take homebound instruction," said Stephen Farkas, assistant to the superintendent for the New Brunswick (NJ) School District, "but they don't take it. Frequently, they'll stay in their regular school until the fifth or sixth month, and then opt for the Family Learning Center."

The 4,800 student New Brunswick school system has been providing a special program for pregnant students for about 15 years. Originally supported by Title XX grant funds and operated in a portable facility, the local board now funds the Family Learning Center (which runs to six figures) and the system is tying into grants with local hospitals to provide improved health care services.

The goals of the program are to educate students, prepare them for parenthood, and improve the emotional, physical, and social well being of parent and child. On average, 20 to 30 girls are in the program, which also is used on a tuition paying basis by neighboring school systems.

## Comprehensive Programs

This year, New Brunswick's Family Learning Center is moving into the regular high school for two reasons. "Portable facilities are considered substandard instructional sites by the state," explained Farkas, "but the move also will make it possible to offer a broader curriculum to students. They need science labs, for example."

New Brunswick's action is in keeping with a trend to house these special programs within regular high schools. In addition to being better able to meet the variety of educational needs represented by the enrolled girls, the stigma surrounding teenage pregnancy and unwed mothers is decreasing. More students want to stay with their friends in their neighborhood school.

The site change for New Brunswick's Family Learning Center is being planned carefully. A committee researched what other school systems are doing and found that comprehensive programs are working well. "In service training is being provided to the entire school staff to help them deal with pregnant students," said Farkas.

The Vineland City (N.J.) School District also started its program as a separate unit. It now is housed within the 11th-12th grade high school. An average of 25 girls per year from the 11,000 student system enroll in the program which is flexible to meet individual needs. Outside consultants, such as pediatricians, obstetricians, and nurses provide much of the prenatal and postnatal instruction.

Operating as a center within the regular school, high school students usually are mainstreamed while 7th and 8th graders are self-contained. Occasionally, an elementary school student is accommodated.

"At first, teachers were concerned about the possible negative influence pregnant students might have on other students and on school climate," said Charles Dyer, assistant superintendent for secondary education. "It proved to be a false concern, the community is quite supportive."

## Key Ingredient is Staff

"The key to our program's success is having the right instructor," said Dyer. "Unfortunately, the teacher who made it as good as it's been for the last 13 years is retiring, but," he added, "I'm confident her replacement will be as enthusiastic and capable."

Before retiring, the teacher submitted a report on the program which noted that enrolled students develop a more positive attitude toward school, want to continue their education, and more babies are being born of average or above average weight. "Over 90 percent of the girls keep their babies and come back to school," said Dyer.

Experts suggest that staffing decisions be made by the program director and not by personnel department staff. In addition to the special knowledge and teaching skills required, it is important for teachers to be concerned, compassionate, and understanding.

### What to Teach

By locating the special program within a traditional high school, students have the full range of educational opportunities. In addition to regular academic and vocational subjects, however, programs geared to pregnant students usually provide a lot of information on parenting skills, nutrition, and health.

Some school programs are providing adaptive physical education classes designed for pregnant girls, and some are teaching the Lamaze method of natural childbirth. Too often young girls don't actually understand how they got pregnant, so sex education and family planning information also is important to teach.

### Additional Services

What goes on in the classroom isn't necessarily all the school system should be concerned with regarding educating pregnant students. Ensuring good nutrition, for example, can mean more than learning abut the nutritional needs of pregnant women. Some school systems provide nutritional breakfast, lunch, and snacks. Monitoring the student's health is another possibility and might be accomplished by the school nurse or cooperatively with a community health center.

The emotional well being of the student and her relationships with her family and the baby's father are other aspects of the problem that schools may want to address. Specialized and expanded counseling services may be useful or necessary.

Again, cooperative efforts with local social service agencies make it more possible to broaden a program's scope.

### After the Baby is Born

School systems are finding that keeping the student in school throughout her pregnancy doesn't solve all problems. Students who keep their babies frequently can't return to school because they don't have child care available.

Groveton High School's program was originally funded by a March of Dimes grant to provide infant day care for student mothers. The benefits are twofold: the mothers stay in school and have help in taking care of their children, pregnant students spend at least an hour a day studying child development by getting actual practice in the infant care center.

"Eight babies are preregistered for the fall," said Hartman. "When the babies are two and a half, they can be enrolled in the community day care center also housed in the school." "Cost isn't a real factor," she added. "Most girls are eligible for public assistance, with fees paid directly to the school system. Those not on welfare receive a county subsidy, so the maximum a student pays for child care is 15 dollars a week."

New Brunswick schools also are responding to the need for child care provisions. "We recently received a grant to provide child care at a local day care center," said Farkas, "so students can return to school."

### Preventing the Problem

Some girls view having a baby as something special they can do, as a way of getting attention, or as a hostile act. Others just don't know how to say no or how to avoid pregnancy. They need to understand that maturity and resources are needed when you're responsible for another human being. Education can help youngsters understand how to avoid adult responsibilities before they're ready to handle them.

"All students receive family life education–it's New Jersey law," said Farkas. "Last year all ninth graders, boys one day and girls another day, participated in all-day sessions with experts at a nearby college."

The Dallas school system adopted its family life education program about three years ago. It starts in the elementary grades and involves parents as well. "There was strong community opposition," recalled Davis, "but school principals countered with talk of the growing problem of teenage pregnancy."

Adopting a family life curriculum probably always will be controversial. Involving a broad spectrum of the community (educators, parents, students, clergy, health experts, organization leaders) is a proven way to address curriculum issues as well as to build a base of public support to respond to community objections.

### Policy Questions

School boards can't always address every community need or desire. Priorities need to be established, mandates must be fulfilled, and there must be funding to back up decisions. When it is community values that interfere, the board needs to make clear to the community that providing programs to help students complete their education isn't the same as a board endorsement of teenage pregnancy.

In some communities, it may not be financially possible to support more than a minimum program that meets legal requirements. Special programs are costly because they usually require applying a lower student-teacher ratio. Allowing students to stay in school and providing homebound instruction when they can't may be all that is possible.

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When a school board decides to do more, however, policy decisions need to be made. In addition to determining the program's objectives and the scope of curriculum and services, boards should decide:

- Where will the program be located? Site selection and the availability of transportation will affect who attends. Dallas, for example, provides transportation to its special program, but Fairfax County students who don't attend Groveton High School regularly are on their own. In a county of approximately 400 square miles with inadequate public transportation, the benefits of the program are available to only a small number of students. Those who don't want to remain in their regular high school and have no way to travel to Groveton are encouraged to enroll in adult education courses.

- Will the standard attendance regulations apply to pregnant students and/or to teenage mothers? Will the standards be the same for students who remain in their regular school and for those who enroll in the special program? Pregnancy and parenthood often result in higher absentee rates. The attendance rate at New Brunswick's Family Learning Center last year, for example, was 70 percent.

- Will inservice training be provided for staff? Adopting a policy that addresses the needs of pregnant students fairly and consistently is only a first step. If negative staff attitudes toward teenage pregnancy aren't addressed, pregnant students may get the message--directly or indirectly--that they should drop out of school. Staff members should be made aware of the numbers of students who get pregnant and have babies, the dropout rate, relevant laws, school system policy, and program opportunities.

Some other questions to address are:

- How will pregnancy be verified? Will a doctor's permission be required for a pregnant student to participate in extracurricular activities?

- What services will be provided to teenage fathers?

- Can pregnant students or teenage parents be barred from membership in the National Honor Society? The results of a current court case involving a Marion Center (PA) senior will have future implications and policy makers should be alert to the impending court decision.

## Evaluate

As with all school programs, a plan for evaluating the success of the program in meeting stated objectives is essential. Are dropout rates being reduced due to the program or policy? What happens to the students after their babies are born? What happens to the babies? By using control groups of nonpregnant students, pregnant students who remain in their regular school, and those who opt for a special program, dropout and attendance rates and learning can be measured.

Comprehensive program evaluations are time consuming and can be expensive. Nevertheless, it is important to find out if the program is doing a good job, if and how it can be improved, and how costly it is. An evaluation report that identifies the actual benefits and problems inherent in a program also can be a useful tool for broadening community support and involvement.

# TEENAGE PREGNANCY AND SCHOOLING: LEGAL CONSIDERATIONS

*(ED305732)*

by Grace Belsches-Simmons

Law and Education Center
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Teenage pregnancy rates have risen phenomenally. Statistics show that forty percent of girls who are now 14 will become pregnant during their teenage years. Of these, twenty percent will have the child, and ninety percent of those will keep the child. Most of these young women are compelled, because of their age, to attend school. Despite evidence that indicates that teenage pregnancy and parentage is rampant - crossing geographical, socio-economic, and racial lines - most states have no comprehensive policy for dealing with the pregnant student, or the student who is a parent. Where these policies do exist they can be divided into two general categories: rules excluding or segregating pregnant girls and mothers and rules restricting their participation in extracurricular activities. Construction of the fourteenth amendment, Title IX, and state law will determine if disparate treatment of those children is legal, and provide guidance on the best approach to these problems.

## Excluding or Segregating Pregnant Pupils

Up until recently, the favored way of dealing with pregnant pupils or pupils who are mothers was to exclude them from school, or segregate them from the general student population. Several courts have considered cases where a child was excluded from school either during or after pregnancy, with varying results.

In 1920, the Kansas Supreme Court ordered a school district to allow a teenage mother to continue her education. Dorothy Nutt was denied the right to attend school after she became a parent out of wedlock, married, and then separated from her husband. Construing the general education statutes, the court in Nutt v. Goodland,[1] noted that the state had vested in school boards the authority to "exclude from association with the school any one who may be or become undesirable from either physical malady or moral obloquy." The court noted:

> The public schools are for the benefit of children within school age, and efficiency ought to be the sole object of those charged with the power and privilege of managing and conducting the same, and while great care should be taken to preserve order and proper discipline, it is proper also to see that no one should be denied the privilege of attending school unless it is clear that the public interest demands the expulsion of such pupils or a denial of his right to attend.[2]

The court recognized that under this authority a child could be excluded from school because of a "licentious or immoral character," but concluded that conception of a child out of wedlock was not a good enough reason to classify the child as immoral.

The instances in which a school can legitimately exclude students for alleged licentious or immoral conduct are limited. In Tinker v. Des Moines Independent Community School District[3] the court held that school officials may not infringe on a fundamental right except where the exercise of the right would constitute a "substantial disruption of or material interference with school activities."[4] The Tinker court found that the fundamental right to free speech as protected in the first amendment was violated when students were excluded from school because they wore armbands which symbolized their dissatisfaction with the Vietnam War. Unwed parentage is not "speech", so the Tinker rule cannot be applied unless a fundamental right can be identified. The Supreme Court has recognized that the right to privacy includes the fundamental right to procreate. In Eisenstadt v. Baird, Justice William Brennan noted "if the right to privacy means anything, it is the right of the individual, married or single, to be free from unwanted governmental intrusion into matters so fundamentally affecting a person as the decision whether to bear or beget a child."[5]

Since a fundamental right is at stake, the Tinker rule, if applied to regulations governing the education of pregnant students, requires school officials to demonstrate that the continuing presence of these pupils in schools creates a substantial disruption in the school.[6] Given the subjectivity of this test, determination must be made on a case-by-case basis. A general rule excluding all pregnant teens or teens who are parents would be an unconstitutional infringement on the right to privacy.

## Equal Protection

The fourteenth amendment's guarantee of equal protection was the basis of the 1969 decision in Perry v. Grenada Municipal School District.[7] In Perry, two unwed mothers alleged that the school board policy of excluding unwed mothers from school was a violation of the equal protection clause. The court agreed, finding that this policy was in invidious discrimination, and noted:

> Any rule which fastens on one wrong, and never permits a person to change his position or condition is indeed on tenuous grounds.
>
> It [the policy of exclusion] is arbitrary in that the individual is forever barred from seeking a high school education. Without a high school education, the individual is ill equipped for life, and is prevented from seeking higher education.
>
> The court holds that plaintiffs may not be excluded from the schools of the district for the sole reason that they are unwed mothers...[8]

In 1972 Della Jean Houston was expelled from regular classes after the birth of her child. It was the policy of the Decatur Board of Education that any person who was married or a parent was automatically excluded from day classes, but could attend adult education classes providing the student paid tuition. In Houston v. Presser,[9] a Georgia federal district court found that, while Houston had a fundamental right to procreate, the exclusion policy did not infringe the exercise of her rights or violate her right to equal protection. The court applied the rational-basis test after finding that no suspect class or fundamental right was affected by the policy. Generally, when the rational-basis test is applied to a state policy, the policy is upheld as furthering some legitimate state purpose. Finding that the purpose of the policy was to maintain discipline in the schools, the court said:

> There is no dispute that students who marry or who become parents are normally more precocious than other students. Because of their precociousness, it is conceivable that their presence in a regular daytime school could result in the disruption thereof. Defendants policy ... is rationally related to the legitimate state purpose of maintaining discipline in the school. Therefore, the court finds the defendants' policy has a rational basis and does not deny plaintiff the equal protection of the law.[10]

Although the Houston court found that the exclusion policy did not violate equal protection, the court held that since children in regular school were not required to pay, Della Jean was denied equal protection to the extent that indigency precluded her attendance at night school. Equal protection required that she be allowed to attend night school free of charge.

In recent years, the U.S. Supreme Court has recognized an intermediate level of scrutiny in equal protection cases.[11] This middle tier acknowledges that some groups of people and some rights (though neither fundamental rights or suspect classes) deserve stricter scrutiny than the rational-basis test. Sex is one of these middle-tier classes and access to education is one of these middle-tier rights. Under this test, a classification will be upheld only if some substantial state interest is served by the classification. However, the Court has consistently held that classifications based on pregnancy are not sex discrimination.[12] Thus it appears that discrimination based on pregnancy under the fourteenth amendment will continue to be judged by the more lenient rational-basis test.

The same is not true for education, however. The Supreme Court has held that education is not a fundamental right under the U.S. Constitution and so cannot be judged under the strict-scrutiny test.[13] However, in 1982, the Court indicated that in at lease some circumstances, education had to be measured by more than the rational-bassi test. In Plyler v. Doe,[14] the Supreme Court considered a Texas statute that allowed school districts to refuse a free education to children who were, or whose parents were, illegal aliens. The court applied the middle-tier analysis, declaring that the statute could be upheld only if it furthered some substantial state interest. Finding no such state interest, the court overturned the statue. Though it is not entirely clear when the Court will apply intermediate scrutiny to a policy governing education, it is clear that a policy denying education must be justified by some substantial state interest. On the question of teenage pregnancy, outright denial of the right to attend school, as in Nutt, Ordway and Perry, would violate equal protection rights. On the other hand, providing separate classes, separate schools or adult education, as long as they are free of charge and substantially equivalent to "regular" school, will survive federal equal protection scrutiny.

Sixteen states have passed equal rights amendments (ERAs) to their state constitutions.[15] Equal rights amendments make sex a suspect classification in equal protection analysis. In these states, sex-based classification would be analyzed more strictly than under the state equal protection clauses or the fourteenth amendment. These state courts will, of course, have to decided whether a classification based on pregnancy is a sex-based classification, but assuming they do, any state policy affecting girls who are pregnant would seemingly have to be justified by a compelling state interest.

Some states have recognized, under the state constitution's education clause, that education is a fundamental right.[16] Therefore, in these states, policies infringing the right to be educated will require strict-scrutiny analysis. Although there is little precedent construing the parameters of the right to education, a recent California case overturned a policy requiring payment of fees for extracurricular activities as an infringement of the fundamental right to a free public education.[17] On the other hand, a New Jersey court applying the same analysis concluded that despite the fundamental right to an education, school districts could require parents (who were able) to pay for some cost associated with the education of a profoundly retarded child.[18] As applied to teenage pregnancy, where a fundamental tight to an education is recognized by the state, policies prescribing exclusion or mandatory alternative schooling will probably not survive equal protection scrutiny.

**Due Process**

The fourteenth amendment's due process clause requires, at minimum, that a person be given notice and an opportunity for a hearing before being denied a right or privilege. The Perry court found that unwed mothers could not be barred forever from obtaining an education, unless "on a fair hearing they were found to be so lacking in moral character that their presence in the schools will taint the education of other students."[19]

In Houston v. Presser, the court held that the policy requiring teenage parents or married parents to attend night school did not deny due process because the student was not "penalized by the policy or deprived of any entitlement."[20] Again, the result depends on whether there is effective denial of an education. If expulsion is total and irreversible, the due process clause requires a hearing prior to denial of the right. If the expulsion is temporary or if alternative instruction is given, the due process clause is satisfied.

**Title IX**

In 1972, Congress passed Title IX to the Education Amendments.[21] The statue prohibits sex discrimination in any program or activity receiving federal financial assistance. The United States Department of Education has promulgated regulations under the statue, which are binding on "any State or political subdivision thereof, or any public or private agency, institution, or organization, or other entity, or any person, to whom Federal financial assistance is extended."[22] The regulations prohibit discrimination in admissions based on marital or parental status:

> In determining whether a person satisfies any criterion for admission, or in making any offer of admission, a recipient . . .
>
> (2) Shall not discriminate against, or exclude any person on the basis of pregnancy, childbirth, termination of pregnancy, or recovery therefrom, or establish or follow any rule or practice which so discriminates or excludes;
>
> (3) Shall treat disabilities related to pregnancy, childbirth, termination of pregnancy, or recovery therefrom in the same manner and under the same policies as any other temporary disability or physical condition.[23]

Although some have maintained that the admissions requirements under Title IX are applicable only to institutions of higher education, that is not supported by the language of the statue. Sex discrimination in admissions may be more prevalent on the university and college level, but Title IX applies equally to elementary and secondary education. Thus, any decision to exclude or otherwise discriminate against pregnant girls, mothers, or married students must take Title IX into consideration, if the program or activity is supported in whole or in part by federal funds.

The Supreme Court has held that Title IX is program specific.[24] This limits the regulation and enforcement powers of federal agencies to a specific program receiving federal funds. Although the definition of a program is not entirely clear, funds earmarked for a specific activity or indirect funds that may be shown to benefit a particular program will invoke Title IX coverage.[25] In the case of pregnant teens, who could conceivably be excluded from many programs, which may be supported by federal funds, school officials should be careful not to jeopardize these funds by unlawfully discriminating against this group of students.

**State Law**

Most states have nothing in their state codes dealing with teenage pregnancy. Those that do typically excuse the pregnant student from compulsory attendance requirements. Excusing the child from compulsory attendance will not, however, excuse school officials from the duty of providing the child with free public education.

In South Carolina, for example, the compulsory attendance law will not apply to: "Any child who is married or has been married, any unmarried child who is pregnant or any child who has had a child out of wedlock."[26] The pregnant, married or child who is a parent, may under this statute, decide not to attend school without being truant. However, South Carolina law otherwise obligates the state to educate all persons between the ages of 5 and 21.[27]

Michigan law prohibits expulsion of students because they are pregnant or have had children, and allows school districts to choose alternative programs to meet the educational needs of these students. That law provides:

> (1) A person who has not completed high school may not be expelled or excluded from a public school because of being pregnant.
>
> (2) A pregnant person who is under the compulsory school age may withdraw from a regular public school program in accordance with rules promulgated by the state board.
>
> (3) The board of a local or intermediate school district may provide an accredited alternative education program for school age expectant parents and school age parents and their children, or provide a program of special services within the conventional school setting or contract with another school district offering the education program.[28]

State civil rights laws, though not explicitly considering teenage pregnancy, may also provide protection for these girls. A District of Columbia law provides:

> It is an unlawful discriminatory practice ... for an educational institution ... to deny, restrict or to abridge or condition the use of, or access to , any of its facilities and services to any person otherwise qualified, wholly or partially, for a discriminatory reason, based upon the ... sex, ... marital status, [or] ... family responsibilities ... of any individual.

This statute obviously prohibits discrimination because of pregnancy or parental status. Although most state civil rights laws are not as broad in terms of groups covered or acts prohibited, courts have traditionally given very broad construction to these statutes. Thus, in Colorado, where a place of public accommodation is defined to include educational institutions, the following statute will probably give some protection to pregnant girls and unwed parents:

> It is a discriminatory practice and unlawful for a person, directly or indirectly, to refuse, withhold from, or deny to any individual or group, because of race, handicap, creed, color, sex, marital status, national origin, or ancestry, the full and equal enjoyment of the goods, services, facilities, privileges, advantages, or accommodations of a place of public accommodation....[29] [30]

Finally, several states have passed civil rights laws that resemble Title IX in form and effect. These laws prohibit discrimination based on sex in any program or activity receiving state financial assistance. In Alaska:

> Recognizing the benefit to our state and nation of equal educational opportunities for all students, ... discrimination on the basis of sex against [a] .. student in public education in Alaska violates [the Alaska Constitution] and is prohibited. No person in Alaska may on the basis of sex be excluded from participation in or denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving federal or state financial assistance.[31]

Where these statutes do not explicitly consider discrimination on the basis of pregnancy unlawful sex discrimination, courts, when confronted with such a case, will have to determine whether these civil rights provisions can be construed to grant this protection. Although case law construing state civil rights statutes have not considered the specific issue of state policies on teenage pregnancy, it is likely that some of these statutes will be construed to grant civil rights protection.

## Extracurricular Activities

School districts often prohibit girls who are pregnant or who have had children from participating in athletics, clubs and other extracurricular activities. As well, married male students are often excluded from athletic programs and other extracurricular activities. Equal protection and due process analysis in these cases is different form denial of education because participation in extracurricular activities is not considered an entitlement or a right.[32] Thus, in these areas, students have less protection than where access to an education is limited.

Due process clauses require notice and a hearing where a right or entitlement is denied. In a non-pregnancy case, Kerpstein v. Powaukee School Board,[33] failure to select a qualified student for National Honor Society membership was held not to be a denial of due process. The court held "an applicant for membership in the National Honor Society has no constitutionally protected liberty or property interest in election to the society. The procedures governing the selection process, therefore, need not guarantee to an applicant the requirements of due process of law."[34] A similar analysis would apply where denial of a honor to a child was based on pregnancy or parenthood.

However, the result would be different if the school ruled that regardless of merit, no child who is pregnant or a parent, could be granted membership. Such a rule creates a classification (of pregnant students or teenage parents) and the equal protection clause will apply. The result, once the equal protection clause is applied, is that the fundamental right to privacy would be infringed, and the state then must establish a compelling state interest to justify the exclusion. In ERA states, the exclusion would have to be justified by a compelling state interest.

The cases where married boys are excluded from extracurricular activities provide an interesting parallel to the teenage pregnancy cases. The law in these cases is likely to provide a very reliable precedent to the teenage pregnancy issue.

In 1969, a Louisiana state court upheld a school board regulation that prohibited married students from participating in extracurricular activities.[35] In the face of a claim that equal protection was denied, the court found no violation because all students who were married were treated similarly by the regulation. Further, the court found that the school board had authority to impose the limitation because "any rule or regulation reasonably calculated to insure that each student complete his high school education is within the scope of the authority granted by the statute.[36]

This rationale is no longer tenable. The Supreme Court has recognized that the right to marry is a fundamental right, and as such any classification that discriminates against people because of their marital status must be justified by a compelling state interest.[37] Thus, in Ball v. Lone Oak Independent School District,[38] the court held that a school board regulation that excluded married students from participation in extracurricular activities violated the equal protection clause. The court found that even though the school board was not required to provide extracurricular activities, once the decision to provide them had been made, the programs must be administered "in a mannernot calculated to discriminate against a class of individuals who will be treated differently from the remainder of the students, unless the school district can show that such a rule is a necessary restraint to promote a compelling state interest.[39]

## A Question of Policy

Several policy issues come to mind on the question of segregating or excluding pregnant girls or mothers. These issues are not necessarily embodied in law, but raise questions of what constitutes "good" public policy.

First, teenage pregnancy is a growing national problem affecting huge numbers of students directly and indirectly. Legislatures should consider whether denial of equal education opportunity is an appropriate response to the problems of the child who is a parent. Is the problem of teenage promiscuity handled by dealing only with those children who are "caught" by reason of their pregnancy or parenthood? Legislation prescribing sex education, planned parenthood, parenting classes and counseling might better serve the legislative concern. Second, a policy that segregates pregnant girls or mothers inherently perpetuates the myth that boys who are fathers bear no responsibility for their actions in siring children. Surely, this is not the lesson that the legislature wishes to teach. Consequently, if a policy segregating children who are parents or about to become parents seems necessary, it should logically include the boys who father these children.

Finally, a high school education has become essential for obtaining even the most menial jobs. Denying a quality education to children who have already demonstrated a need to earn a living by virtue of their status of parents, while arguably protecting the state interest in a "moral" environment in the schools, creates and perpetuates ignorance and poverty. Certainly the state's interest in eradicating illiteracy, and preparing children for the world of work through quality education far outweighs any unproven allegations that children who are parents taint the morals and interfere with the education of children who are not parents.

### Conclusion

Until the last twenty years or so, the phenomenon of teenage pregnancy was handled with relative ease. The girl either shouldered the entire burden by voluntarily leaving school for the duration of her pregnancy and beyond, or enrolled in special schools for unwed mothers, sometimes provided by the school district. However, young mothers and mothers-to-be no longer with to be segregated from other students or forego the opportunity to receive an education. The challenge for school officials and state policy makers is to fashion policy which addresses the changing morality, yet ensures that quality education for both pregnant and non-pregnant students is not sacrificed.

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1. Nutt v. Goodland, 278 P. 1065 (Kan. 1929).

2. Id. at 1106.

3. 393 U.S. 503 (1969).

4. Id. at 514.

5. Eisenstadt v. Baird, 405 U.S. 438, 453 (1972) (invalidating a statute which limited the availability of contraceptives to unmarried persons).

6. This reasoning was adopted in 1971 by the United States District Court in Massachusetts. In Ordway v. Hargraves, 323 F. Supp 1155 (D. Mass 1971) a preliminary injunction was issued ordering a high school principal to readmit a student to regular classes despite her pregnancy. The Ordway decision was issued prior to Eisenstadt so does not rely on the fundamental right to privacy as a basis for application of the Tinker rule, but apparently relied on the now disputed belief that there was a federal fundamental right to an education. While not clearly relying on equal protection, or due process the court nevertheless, found that excluding Fay Ordway from classes, even though she was allowed to continued her education by receiving assignments and after-school tutoring at no cost, was unjustified. The court citing Tinker found that since the school could not show that there was a "likelihood that her presence will cause any disruption of or interference with school activities or pose a threat of harm to others," Id. at 1158, she should be readmitted.

7. 300 F. Supp. 748 (N.D. Miss. 1969).

8. Id. at 753.

9. 361 F. Supp. 295 (N.D. Ga. 1973).

10. Id. at 299.

11. Mississippi University for Women v. Hogan, 102 S. Ct. 3331 (1982).

12. See, Geduldig v. Aiello, 417 U.S. 484 (1974) (held failure to provide disability benefits for pregnant employees is not a sex discrimination unless it is shown that the distinction based on pregnancy is a "mere pretext" to invidious discrimination based on sex).

13. San Antonio Independent School district v. Rodriguez, 411 U.S. 1 (1973) (held there is no federally recognized "fundamental" right to an education).

14. Plyler v. Doe, 102 S. Ct. 2382 (1982).

15. Alaska, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Hawaii, Illinois, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Mississippi, Montana, New Hampshire, New Mexico, Pennsylvania, Texas, Utah, Virginia, Washington and Wyoming have equal rights amendments to the state constitution.

16. Shofstaff v. Hollins, 515 P.2d 590 (Ariz. 1983); Serrano v. Priest, 497 P.2d 1241 (Cal. 1971) (Serrano 1); Horton v. Meskill, 172 Conn. 625 (Conn. 1976); Knowles v. State Board of Educ., 547 P.2d 699 (Kan. 1976); Robinson v. Cahill, 62 N.J. 473 (N.J. 1973) (Robinson I); In P.e.G.H., 218 N.W.2d 44, (N.D. 1974); Seattle Sch. Dist. Nal v. State, 247 N.W.2d 71 (Wash. 1978); Buse v. Smith, 247 N.W.2d 141 (Wis. 1973); Washakie County Sch. Dist. No 1 v. Herschler, 606 P.2d 310 (Wyo. 1980), cert. denied, 449 U.S. 824 (9180).

17. Hartzell v. Connell, 201 Cal. Rptr. 601 (Cal. 1984) (held, citing Serrano I, supra, note 16, requiring a fee for participation in extracurricular activities violates the free school provision).

18. Levine v. Institution and Agencies Department, 84 W.J. 234, 418 A.2d 229 (W.J. 1980) (held, despite Robinson I, supra note 16, state constitution did not require completely free institutionalized case of a profoundly handicapped child).

19. 300 F. Supp. at 753.

20. 361 F. Supp at 298-299.

21. 42 U.S.C.A. secs. 1681 through 1986 (1978).

22. 45 C.F.R. sec. 86.2(h) (1981) (definition of a 'recipient ")

23. 45 C.F.R. sec. 86.21(c), (3) (1981).

24. North Haven Board of Education v. U.S., 102 S. Ct. 1912 (1982).

25. Grove City College v. Bell, 104 S. Ct. 1211 (1984) interpreting 20 U.S.C. sec. 1691(a) (1978). However, the "program specific" application in this case may be eliminated by passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1984 which makes it clear that Title IX and several other federal civil rights statutes do not require program specificity as threshold to federal enforcement.

26. S.C. Code sec. 59-65-30(a) (1976).

27. S.C. Code sec. 59-63-20 (1976).

28. Mich. Comp. Laws Ann. sec. 380.1301 (West Supp. 1983).

29. D.C. Code Ann. sec.1-2520(a) (1981).

30. Colo. Rev. Stat. sec. 24-34-301 (2) (1981). Thirty-five states have statutes guaranteeing access to pieces of public accommodations; seven states expressly include schools in the definition of a place of public accommodation: five states include recipients of state subsidies; in recent years only New Mexico has held that schools are not included in the definition of a place of public accommodation, and this was limited to administrative decisions, the court reserving the question of whether issues of access to schools would be included. See Human Rights Commission v. Board of Regents, 624 P.2d. 518 (N.M. 1981).

31. Alaska Stat. sec. 14.18.010 (1982). Arizona, Arkansas, California, Louisiana, Maryland, New York, North Dakota, Oregon and Texas have similar statutes. See, Belsches-Simmons, G. State Civil Rights Laws. LEC 83-16 (1983), Table Four for citations and languages.

32. But see. Hartzell v. Connell, supra, note 17.

33. 557 F. Supp. 565-567 (1983).

34. Id. at 565-567.

35. Estay v. LaFourche Parish School Board, 230 So. 2d 443 (La App. 1969).

36. 230 So. 2d at 446.

37. Loving v. Virginia, 388 U.S. 1 12 (1976) (held marriage is "one of the vital personal rights essential to the orderly pursuit of happiness.")

38. 507 S.W. 2d 636 (Tex. App. 1974).

39. Id. at 633.

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# IMPROVING EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR PREGNANT AND PARENTING STUDENTS: A REPORT ON A SURVEY OF POLICIES, PRACTICES, PROGRAMS, AND PLANS FOR PREGNANT AND PARENTING STUDENTS IN NINE URBAN SCHOOL DISTRICTS

*(ED307343)*

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## Introduction

This report describes a survey of policies, practices, programs, and plans for pregnant and parenting students in nine urban school districts in the United States. The survey was conducted during the winter of 1987 - 1988 by staff of the Support Center for Educational Equity for Young Mothers at the Academy for Educational Development in New York City.

The Center was established in the fall of 1986 to help educators, policymakers, and activists improve teenage mothers' educational opportunities, since without basic academic skills and a high school diploma, young mothers' economic prospects are bleak. In assisting a large variety of organizations and individuals concerned with the schooling of young mothers, Center staff saw a need for better information about how school districts are currently responding to pregnant and parenting students who have not completed high school. The survey discussed in this report was undertaken so that Center staff could explore in greater depth what educational policymakers and practioners in individual school districts are doing for pregnant and parenting teenagers and how they think their approaches towards these students might be improved.

In each of the nine cities surveyed, phone interviews were held with administrators in three types of roles in their school districts: administrators in superintendents' offices, in dropout prevention planning, and in programs for pregnant and patenting students. Virtually all of the administrators were well aware that teenage pregnancy is a problem affecting many of their students. Furthermore, each of their districts provides assistance for some pregnant and parenting students. However, there was enormous variation in these administrators' knowledge of the numbers of students affected, their educational needs, and the responsiveness of youth-serving institutions to these needs; and, the types of help their districts offer pregnant and parenting students also vary considerably.

The following summary highlights what we learned from the interviews.

- **Administrators' knowledge of this group of students is uneven.** While many administrators knew how many babies are born to teenage mothers each year in their city, most administrators did not know how many pregnant and patenting teenagers are in their district, what percent of these teenagers have not completed high school, and what proportion of female dropouts in their district have children.

- **Support for young mothers is more limited than support for pregnant girls.** When school systems set up special programs in response to teenage parenthood, these programs usually serve pregnant students. If special services for student mothers have been established, most of them target a small number of students.

- **Assistance for pregnant and parenting students is usually organized as innovations in service delivery rather than improvements in institutional policies.** Typically help for pregnant and parenting students is provided through special programs and services. Most districts have not pursued broader policy reforms that would encourage this group of students (as well as many other groups of students) to remain in or return to school.

- **Pregnant and parenting dropouts get shortchanged in programs set up to respond to student pregnancy.** Most administrators concerned about pregnant girls and teenage mothers focus on those who are still in school. Outreach mechanisms to locate and re-enroll dropouts who are parents (or about to become parents) are weak; instead, such recruitment depends on the goodwill of concerned individuals within and outside the school system.

- **Dropout prevention initiatives slight the needs of pregnant and parenting students.** Dropout prevention or other at-risk youth initiatives often cite teenage pregnancy as an issue but infrequently allocate funds for improving assistance for pregnant and parenting students.

- **Coordination among public sector agencies working with teenage mothers is limited.** There is not enough formal collaboration among staff of welfare, health, social service and education agencies in terms of identifying and serving school-age mothers who have not completed high school.

Administrators' proposals and plans for improving help to pregnant and parenting students do not pay adequate attention to policy reform and interagency collaboration. Administrators have many ideas for helping pregnant and parenting teenagers more effectively, but few focus on policy changes or multi-service coordination. Therefore, it is not surprising that most districts' actual plans for improving assistance to pregnant or parenting students contain similar limits -- these plans are usually confined to expanding the current programming or adding one or two new service components to a few schools.

This report examines why we must focus on teenage mothers' educational needs, provides a fuller discussion of the findings summarized above, and offers recommendations for improving young mothers' education opportunities.

## THE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF YOUNG MOTHERS

Over the past two decades, birth rates among Americans teenagers declined substantially. However, at the same time, the proportion of teenage mothers who are single increased dramatically. With such a large number of adolescents having their children outside of marriage, and with another sizable group ending up divorced, teenage mothers often become the primary wage earners for their children for significant periods of time. Yet, many teenage mothers are ill-prepared as breadwinners because of weak educational credentials. In today's labor market a family provider needs at least a high school diploma.

Teen mothers with a high school education are less likely to live in poverty or rely on welfare for protracted periods of time. Unfortunately, it appears that about half of teenage mothers do not have a high school degree when they deliver; each year about forty percent of teenage mothers are younger than 18, and it is likely that most of them, as well as some proportion of the remaining teenage mothers, do not have a degree. To make matters worse, by the time their babies are a few months old, a large proportion of the mothers who need to finish their secondary education are out of school. (While some of these mothers dropped out before they got pregnant, most left school during pregnancy, after they gave birth, or later). As a consequence, many teenage mothers put off their pursuit of a high school degree for years; the practical problems of caring for their babies and meeting school requirements are overwhelming.

Given the demands of pregnancy and parenthood, it might seem appropriate for teen mothers to stay out of school for some time. However, research on school-age mothers' educational patterns indicates that they are more likely to complete high school (and delay subsequent pregnancies) if they are enrolled in school during pregnancy and after birth.

Thus, the challenge for public policymakers is to tackle those obstacles which get in the way of teenage mothers finishing high school in a timely fashion. To expand teenage mothers' educational opportunities, it is critical to focus on what school districts can do. The next section will discuss what we learned from the Center's survey of school district administrators so as to enlarge our understanding of how districts typically respond to pregnant and parenting teenagers.

## THE SURVEY

The Center's "Survey of Policies, Programs, Practices, and Plans for Pregnant and Parenting Students in Nine Urban School Districts" was conducted during the winter of 1987 - 1988. Staff interviewed three types of administrators in nine urban school districts. Selection of these cities was based on the following criteria: geographical diversity; ethnic/racial mix of the population; staff's knowledge of schools districts' approaches to pregnant and parenting students; and the intensity of a school system's focus on dropout prevention. The survey was primarily concerned with the problems facing teenage mothers since only a small proportion of babies born to teenage mothers have teenage fathers, and the burden of child care usually falls on teenage mothers, whether or not they are married.

The survey focused on soliciting answers to the following questions:

1. How much do district administrators know about the population of pregnant and parenting teenagers in their district who have not completed a high school degree?
2. How do district administrators think about their responsibility towards this population of students?
3. What types of assistance do districts currently offer pregnant and parenting students?
4. Does any district organize their response to this population in a systematic way?
5. Are students in this population targeted for dropout prevention or at-risk youth initiatives?
6. Has any district developed an inter-agency, collaborative planning process for meeting the needs of pregnant and parenting teenagers?
7. What do educators think should be done in their district to help pregnant and parenting teenagers with schooling?
8. What plans have district administrators made for improving assistance to pregnant and parenting students?

In the next five pages, the information we obtained in answer to each of the questions is summarized. This summary is followed by a discussion of how we view the survey findings.

**Question 1: How much do district administrators know about the population of pregnant and parenting teenagers in their district who have not completed high school?**

The staff of special programs for pregnant and parenting students were most knowledgeable about this population in their district. Nonetheless, their information about the numbers of pregnant and parenting teenagers in their district was usually based on health department statistics on the number of babies born to teenagers in a particular year. Neither this group of educators nor the others offered estimates of what might be the total number of teen mothers – those who gave birth in previous years, as well as those who have just given birth – in their city. Furthermore, no one ventured even a guess as to what proportion of young mothers in their city need to complete a high school degree.

Despite the lack of data on this group of students, few respondents mentioned plans to improve data collection. And only one administrator discussed working with other public agencies (particularly health facilities) to ascertain the school status of teenagers having babies.

**Question 2: How do district administrators think about their responsibility towards this population of students?**

Administrators' views about pregnant and parenting students varied according to their positions. District-level administrators were aware of the special difficulties facing pregnant and parenting students, yet many defined their obligations towards this group fairly narrowly, partially because of limited resources. They focused on the pregnant girls and student mothers who are already being served and offered few observations as to how they might improve outreach towards pregnant or parenting dropouts.

There was a great range among the dropout prevention administrators we talked with regarding their knowledge of and plans to assist pregnant and parenting teens. Some spoke in rather general terms about new efforts that could help pregnant girls and young mothers, while other had concrete ideas for ways to improve how these students are treated. However, few of these administrators knew how large a group of dropouts teen mothers are or discussed system-wide assistance for this group of students.

As teen pregnancy program directors were the best informed about the needs and status of teenage mothers in their community, they had strong opinions about what their district should be doing to assist pregnant and parenting students effectively. However, many of these administrators said that their views do not have sufficient impact because they are not included in district policy-making meetings. One well known teenage pregnancy Program Director said, "We are not consulted when we should be." She and others suggested that this is because district staff do not share their sense of responsibility toward pregnant and parenting students. One said, "I feel that, in our district, our clients – teen moms – are not considered worth planning for." Another said, "These kids don't exist for our district."

**Question 3: What types of assistance do districts currently offer pregnant and parenting students?**

Most districts direct their assistance for this population into special programs for pregnant girls, often provided at separate sites. Services for young mothers are less common. Programs for pregnant and parenting students in mainstream schools are limited, and special support for pregnant teens and student mothers at alternative schools (other than special programs for pregnant or parenting students) is weak.

Most administrators did not know how pregnant and parenting students fare in schools where no special assistance is offered to them. Some of the teen pregnancy program directors indicated that they felt many school personnel had punitive attitudes towards these girls. Also, they cited "subtle pressure" on pregnant girls to attend the special programs and lack of concern about whether these girls actually made the transfer to special programs or simply dropped out. However, the directors also notes that every school has its share of kind, helpful staff who go out of their way for these young women. Indeed, they said that they believed that in mainstream schools the well-being of pregnant and parenting students is heavily dependent upon the advocacy, guidance and persistent attentiveness of these individuals.

**Question 4: Does any district organize their response to this population in a systematic way?**

Most districts are not focused on systemic, district-wide changes in policies and practices that would improve the educational options of pregnant and parenting teens. To the contrary, most school administrators tend to think in terms of programs, rather than policies. Among the districts we surveyed, there were two exceptions; one is reviewing policies related to transfer procedures, length of maternity leave, criteria for excused absences, adequacy of mainstream schools responses to student mothers, and so on; and another is in the process of launching new approaches to improve significantly the identification of out-of-school teenage mothers.

**Question 5: Are students in this population targeted for dropout prevention or at-risk youth initiatives?**

Pregnant and parenting students are absent from most dropout prevention plans, even though most administrators said that pregnancy and parenting is a major reason why female students leave school. Some administrators noted that, despite changes in attitudes in recent years, this population is still considered "bad" in many quarters and too conventional to help. As one educator put it: "People think that if we help pregnant students, we're advocating teenage sex." Other administrators felt that the scant attention paid to pregnant and parenting students in dropout prevention initiatives reflected the underutilization of teen pregnancy experts by those concerned with improving the education options for dropout-prone youth. As a result, the special needs of pregnant and parenting students often do not receive the attention they deserve. (In a few instances, however, teen pregnancy staff told us that by sheer persistence they were able to convince district administrators to do more for pregnant and parenting teens.)

From out interviews, it was clear that dropout prevention personnel are in a critical position. They can move district administrators to action on behalf of pregnant and parenting students. However, we found that they were unlikely to do so unless they had worked closely with staff in programs for this population, unless staff of teen pregnancy programs had been included in groups planning school improvement measures, or unless teenage pregnancy activists had been unusually persistent in their efforts for change.

**Question 6: Has any district developed an inter-agency, collaborative planning process for meeting the needs of pregnant and parenting teenagers?**

Formal collaboration among public and private agencies for sharing resources to prevent school leaving among teenage mothers is unusual. However, in many cities, interagency referrals are said to be working well. "In our city there is constant, informal networking," reported one teenage pregnancy program director. Also, in some instances, community-based organizations formally operate the district's special program for pregnant students.

The isolation of schools for mother public agencies targeting this population seems to be a critical problem since the teen pregnancy program administrators report that they have trouble recruiting out-of-school young mothers and are strapped for funds to initiate new approaches. Many program directors recognize this: several mentioned preliminary discussions or contacts with other public administrators (in welfare, for example), but significant interagency cooperation had not evolved.

**Question 7: What do educators think should be done in their district to help pregnant and parenting teenagers with schooling?**

District staff provided an impressive group of ideas for how to improve assistance to pregnant and parenting students. The following is a list of changes district educators through should be pursued to increase the odds of young mothers completing high school on time.

- an administrative process for identifying and monitoring pregnant and parenting students – for example, when they transfer back to a regular school from a school for pregnant students – including use of case management and site coordination strategies.
- improved options for school-based or neighborhood child-care
- supplemental services and scheduling flexibility for young mothers at mainstream high schools, vocational education or occupational training programs, night school, adult education programs, and so on
- new approaches to assist middle school-age mothers
- realistic maternity leave policies

- special programs for students with home responsibilities or a need for more independent study options
- transportation subsidies
- improved data collection on this population in and out of school
- staff training on working with this population
- improvements in employment preparation, health, family planning, and parenting education services

**Question 8: What plans have district administrators made for improving assistance to pregnant and parenting students?**

While many of the administrators we interviewed told us what they would like to do to lower barriers to school enrollment and completion for student mothers, few could cite plans in their districts to improve significantly the scale of assistance offered pregnant and parenting teens. By contrast, however, a small number of districts are pursuing innovative new steps for helping pregnant girls and teen mothers.

In one district, a curriculum specialist in home economics reported that she had been given the authority to act as a "district planner" in developing proposals for change. She sees her mission as formulating suggestions for improvement in the school system's data base on pregnant and parenting students; for an administrative process that will enable staff to track these students' progress; for an instructional program that meets state requirements regarding the education of school-age mothers; and for the credentials of teachers giving the courses designed to meet student mothers unique needs (courses in parenting, health education, including family planning, and vocational preparation, for example).

In this same district, the Director of Special Programs said, "Our approach is piecemeal, but we want to be more systematic. Our district is poised to make the changes that are necessary. Right now we have counselors working with teenage parents in three of our high schools, and we have a school for pregnant students. Our goal is to have programs (serving the needs of pregnant girls and teen parents) with full-time coordinators in each of our 15 high schools. The coordinator is a must. These youngsters an advocate to look after them."

Another district is refining plans for new ways of strengthening approaches for identifying teenage mothers needing to re-enroll in a program leading to a high school degree. Follow-up phone calls are being made to girls who dropped out of one of the district's alternative high school programs; and Headstart programs are used to recruit teenage mothers who have not completed high school. This district is also working to expand the array of educational programs appropriate for pregnant students and teenage mothers.

In a third instance, the school district is planning an extraordinary new facility for the school that serves pregnant girls and, to a more limited degree, young parents. The school's director hopes that the space available in the new site will allow the program staff to work more effectively on meeting the needs of pregnant and parenting students throughout the district.

Many of the remaining districts have some sort of special services for pregnant girls and young mothers. Usually the administrators in these districts reported plans for enhancing these services (adding a child care center to a school trying to serve student mothers, for example) rather than developing more broad-based reforms.

## DISCUSSION

It is deceptively easy to say that this survey confirmed our assumptions as to how most districts are dealing with challenges posed by pregnant and parenting teens. From our experience with teenage pregnancy activists around the country and from careful analysis of the literature on pregnant teens and young mothers in school, we believed, at the outset of the survey, that the educational needs of pregnant and parenting teens were insufficiently addressed in most school districts. We also thought that this inequity was being perpetuated, rather than alleviated, through the new dropout prevention/at-risk youth initiatives which logically ought to direct a significant amount of attention and resources towards this population.

Our interviews gave us a wealth of information and anecdotes to substantiate this view. However, after nearly six months of intensive investigation of how many school districts respond to pregnant and parenting students, we are uncomfortable with the notion, which might appear to be implicit in our assessment, that districts are consciously ignoring the problems of a very needy group of students.

Our interviews gave us a vivid sense that many dedicated individuals are working to help this population. However, we believe that pregnant and parenting teens are victimized by a number of factors which combine to keep them low on everyone's short list of students to be targeted for assistance. First, pregnant and parenting teens are characterized by attributes that, taken together, make it more likely that school personnel will slight their problems: they are disproportionately poor, minority, and behind grade level in school; and, by some, they are seen as "bad" for having had sex and for having a child. Second, they are frequently out-of-sight, out-of-mind: they have either left school or they have enrolled in a special program which keeps them away from the mainstream schools and their staff. Third, the situation of young mothers has changed rapidly in the past decade: not only are more of them single (or will be single for some period while their children are young), but also, increasingly, they are expected to earn their own living. Yet educational institutions, as well as other youth-serving institutions, have not changed their programming sufficiently to prepare young women adequately as breadwinners.

And finally, school resources are strained to the hilt by the new mission facing school – educating all adolescents. Most educators were trained in an era which held that, while all students are entitled to an education, the responsibility for obtaining it was theirs. Now they work in an era which maintains, in effect, that all students are entitled to a high school diploma and that it is the schools' responsibility to ensure that they get one. The institutional adjustments and changes required by this new mission are difficult, especially under conditions of fiscal retrenchment. Not surprisingly, it seems justifiable to overlook the problems of pregnant and parenting students.

The apparent neglect of teenage mothers is also attributable to the fact that administrators working within these districts do not have a good grasp of how many teenage mothers are in their district or what proportion have yet to acquire a high school degree. As a result, administrators do not act as if pregnant and parenting teens were a significant proportion of their dropout population. Yet, pregnant and parenting girls comprise half of the female dropout population in most school districts (and, therefore, a quarter of the entire dropout population). To meet the needs of the group of dropouts equitably and effectively will require new types of approaches and planning processes.

To sum up: it is clear why educational administrators slight the needs of pregnant and parenting teenagers in their school districts. They are swamped with many problems that are as serious as student parenthood, and, for a variety of reasons, they accord many other problems higher priority. Therefore, they are very dependent upon the leadership of key individuals experienced in the issues surrounding teenage parenthood to develop momentum, mechanisms, and ideas for change.

Thus, while we found both lack of knowledge and stereotyping to be major factors in why the education needs of pregnant and parenting teens are inadequately addresses, we were more impressed with administrators' sense of being overwhelmed. They lack the critical ingredients that facilitate change: solid knowledge about the numbers of pregnant and parenting teens; leadership because school personnel with extensive knowledge of this population are typically not included in planning groups focusing on school improvement and dropout prevention: models because very few districts have tried to make systematic changes on behalf of this population; and, as many survey respondents noted, resources for approaches they see as appropriate but expensive – school-based child care and case managers, for instance.

Furthermore, in many places administrators still fear opposition if they try to help these students more adequately. Without a vision of should be done, solid information about how to make appropriate change, and monetary incentives to pursue improvements, administrators are naturally reluctant to extend themselves to a controversial group of students.

## RECOMMENDATIONS

To improve educational opportunities for pregnant and parenting students, a variety of policy improvements at local, state, and national levels will be required. For school districts to expand their assistance for this group of students they need: additional resources through new funds and resource-sharing with other institutions serving this population; guidance about how to initiate and sustain district-wide change; and models of what changes are desirable and how to implement them.

It is especially important that administrators working within school districts have access to better information about how to help all pregnant and parenting students effectively. Presently, any district which would commit itself to a process of district-wide policy improvement for pregnant and parenting teens would have no models to emulate regarding how that process should proceed or what an enlightened reform plan would look like. Furthermore, there is simply no knowledge as to what constitutes "best practices" for handling many of the issues that arise in trying to help pregnant and parenting teens – that is, we have very little comparative information as to what districts could do about maternity leaves, outreach, transfer procedures, employment guidance, mainstreaming and so on. There are exemplary programs that have successful ways of handling one or more of these issues, but only a very lucky or dedicated district educator would learn where to seek the information. As a first step, district personnel need help to initiate a planning process that will enable the district to get the facts on this group of students in the district; utilize the experience of school personnel and community professionals who work with young parents; collaborate with local public and private agencies to marshall the resources needed to pursue new approaches (including, where appropriate, developing school-community partnerships to enhance assistance to teen mothers); and contact educators in other districts and groups for information on policies and programs worth adapting.

To provide school district staff with adequate support so they can make changes on the scale required to serve pregnant and parenting students more equitably and effectively, funders, policymakers, and activists ought to pursue the following recommendations.

1. Various strategies should be developed for educating educators, public policymakers, and teenage pregnancy activists about young mothers' educational problems and the need for new approaches to serving them. Articles in professional newsletters and presentations at professional conferences are needed. Also, a special effort to reach people working in dropout prevention should be organized as the neglect of pregnant and parenting students through these initiatives is particularly conspicuous and inequitable.

2. A variety of system approaches to school district reform on behalf of pregnant and parenting students should be stimulated, documented, and, where effective, promoted. Such experiments would have to involve several important foci: the identification of teen mothers without their high school accreditation; the provision of assistance to these young women until they complete high school; an emphasis on helping young mothers delay subsequent births; and the consistent monitoring of their progress. These foci would require a high degree of cooperation and coordination among the primary public agencies serving teenage mothers -- health, social service, welfare, and education. School districts would have to collaborate with these local public agencies, and private organizations for both planning and service delivery. Therefore, the planning and implementation process would have to be considered as important as the final changes.

3. On-going technical assistance - information and advice - should be made available to educators, teen pregnancy activists, and others who are seeking help with improving school-based or district-wide responses to pregnant and parenting students. District staff and other staff at community youth-serving agencies need how-to guidance on developing

   (a) school-community partnerships for planning and service delivery

   (b) improved data collection on this population in the school system

   (c) effective outreach strategies for locating out-of-school pregnant and parenting teens

   (d) tracking mechanisms to ensure that pregnant and parenting teens transfer successfully between school programs during pregnancy and after delivery

   (e) support services for parents at mainstream schools, alternative school, night programs, GED classes, and so on

   (f) on-going support for the moist vulnerable young mothers, perhaps utilizing the San Francisco Teenage Pregnancy and Parenting (TAPP) Program's case management model, and

   (g) resources adequate to the approaches that must be developed

4. A policy paper analyzing examples of state or federal legislation and administrative regulations that provide support for school districts to organize systematic approaches to pregnant and parenting students should be developed.

## CONCLUSION

The aim of AED's school district survey, reported here, was to provide advocates with better information as to what school districts are doing and planning in order to assist pregnant and parenting students. We found that pregnant and parenting teenagers' educational problems are widely acknowledged. Early parenthood is commonly cited as contributing to school leaving among girls. Many school districts have set up special programs for pregnant students and special services for student mothers (and occasionally even student fathers).

Yet, however good these individual programs, they serve only a fraction of the need. Moreover, even in school districts where collaboration among staff in schools and community agencies has created a broader response to the problems of teenage parenthood, it is primarily the social and medical needs -- and not the academic needs -- of pregnant girls that are addressed. Over the past few decades the most common response to helping student parents has been to organize a separate program for pregnant girls. It is ironic that the success of this approach has often allowed district staff to neglect questions about who is not attending these programs and what happens to girls once they leave the program. As a consequence, in most communities, educators and other service providers have not addressed the diverse and systematic barriers to pregnant and parenting students continuing in an educational program leading to a high school diploma.

Dropout prevention and at-risk youth initiatives offer districts a way to begin improving their help for pregnant and parenting students. However, although pregnant girls and young mothers make up about half of all female dropouts (or a quarter of all dropouts), they receive scant attention through these reforms and programs.

Activists concerned with the problems that plague teenage mothers must concentrate on their problems with educational institutions. The case for lobbying district-level educators to become more responsive to the needs of pregnant and parenting students rests on both legal and practical grounds. On the one hand, pregnant and parenting students are entitled to educational options geared to their needs and to their fair share of dropout prevention resources. On the other hand, the human costs of ignoring the educational needs of teenage mothers are high: too many teenage mothers face economic hardship for much of their lives. Furthermore, given the effect of a mother's educational attainment on her children's achievement, the children of teenage mothers are especially vulnerable to school failure. Therefore, helping student mothers should have a positive effect on two generations of students.

There is yet another reason to work with educators on improving their responsiveness to the needs of pregnant and parenting teens: new directions in welfare reform will probably require greater labor force participation by welfare recipients. As a large proportion of teenage mothers rely on welfare at some point in their lives, those mothers who have already completed high school will be in a far less vulnerable position when new regulations go into effect.

Fortunately, the approaches educational institutions must initiate in order to offer student mothers appropriate educational opportunities are similar to other new policies and practices that must be developed in order to serve all students -- and especially students who have traditionally left high school before graduation -- more effectively. Pregnant and parenting teenagers are not a special constituency asking for favors from a school system. They are typical of a large group of students for whom the present structure of high school does not work.

# THE NEED FOR A WARMING TREND: A SURVEY OF THE SCHOOL CLIMATE FOR PREGNANT AND PARENTING TEENS

*(ED307547)*

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## INTRODUCTION

The school climate–measured by school policies and practices as well as staff attitudes–is chilly for pregnant and parenting teenagers. The principal controls the main thermostat. Countless others–from the gatekeeping school secretary to counselors and teachers–set the temperature from room-to-room. And state and local policymakers create the context.

Vulnerable students are sensitive to even subtle changes in the school environment, and pregnant and parenting students are among the most vulnerable. Although often overlooked in discussions of at-risk students, over 40 percent of all girls who drop out of school cite pregnancy or marriage as their reason. Making the school environment more hospitable for these female students–and for teenage fathers–can make a significant dent in dropout statistics, as well as provide these young parents with the education they and their families need.

To get a sense of the climate for pregnant and parenting teens in our nation's schools, the Equality Center surveyed twelve diverse schools across the country. Our goal was to identify policies, practices and attitudes that help–or hinder–continued schooling by pregnant and parenting teenagers. We examined the degree to which schools' treatment of pregnant and parenting students complies with Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972: Title IX is the law that prohibits sex discrimination in schools receiving federal funds. We also examined how far beyond the "letter of the law" schools have gone, initiating steps on their own to encourage pregnant and parenting teenagers to stay in school.

This report covers eight subject areas, ranging from *Attitudes Towards Pregnant and Parenting Teens*, to *Courses and Programs* to *Attendance*. Under each subject area are policies and practices that determine the school climate for pregnant and parenting students. Many of these items also violate Title IX.

The final section provides information about the survey methodology and sample.

This research was designed and this report was written by Margaret Nash and Margaret Dunkle of the Equality Center. We are also grateful to Adriana Szyszlican for her research assistance while a student intern with the Equality Center and to Angela Carpenter for word processing. Initial development of this survey was supported by the Women's Educational Equity Act program of the U.S. Department of Education. The opinions expressed are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the positions or policy of the Department.

We wish to thank the individuals who filled out a survey (some of whom wish to remain anonymous) as well as others who provided assistance.

*Survey Respondents*

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Lauren Jacobs
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Dorothy Meacham
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## KEY FINDINGS

In reviewing school practices, policies and programs regarding pregnant and parenting teenagers, we found both serious problems and encouraging signs. In the area of policy, we found a void: few schools have clear policies about how to treat pregnant and parenting students. As a result, school staff, acting on their own and often with good intentions, limit opportunities for these students at the very time when they need more rather than less support.

Most schools fail the Title IX test. When we analyzed survey results to identify Title IX violations, we found that nine of the twelve schools–75 percent–violated the law. Several had multiple violations. Not only does this produce a school climate that freezes some pregnant and parenting teens out, it also leaves the school open to Title IX complaints and lawsuits.

Title IX problems identified include:

- not allowing excused absences from school for prenatal or postnatal care or problems associated with pregnancy;
- requiring pregnant students, but not students with other medical conditions, to have certification from a physician in order to remain in school at all;
- channeling pregnant and parenting students into specific courses of study or not allowing these students the same freedom as other students to enroll in any course or program;
- requiring pregnant students to take study halls even though there was no medical reason;
- not allowing pregnant and parenting students to be club or class officers, or student government representatives or officers;
- not allowing pregnant and parenting students to be eligible for scholarships, financial aid and prizes on the same basis as other students;
- not allowing pregnant or parenting students to run for prom or homecoming queen or court member;
- not allowing pregnant and parenting students to participate in sports programs and athletic teams, even when there is no medical reason to exclude them;
- denying pregnant and parenting students recommendations or giving unfavorable recommendations for jobs or further education due to their pregnancy or parenthood; and
- at the end of leave for pregnancy, not reinstating students to the status they held when the leave began.

In many instances, survey respondents reported that these prohibited practices occurred *Sometimes* or *Usually*, often at the discretion of a teacher or staff member. Uneven treatment and the lack of official school policies do not change the fact that these behaviors put the *school* on the wrong side of Title IX.

From a civil rights perspective, the analogy is a football coach who believes that Blacks should not be quarterbacks and therefore refuses to put the best player in that position. Because the coach is an agent of the school, the coach's action is a civil rights violation for the school as well as a personal problem. The same principle applies in how teachers and staff treat pregnant and parenting teens.

Limited-English-proficient students who also are pregnant frequently face additional barriers. Only 75 percent of the schools surveyed report that these students have access to the same services as other pregnant and parenting students.

Further, disabled students who also are pregnant have access to the same services as other pregnant and parenting students at only three-quarters of the schools surveyed.

At the same time, up to two-thirds of all schools may be using federal special education funds to provide services for pregnant and parenting student *who are not otherwise disabled,* a practice specifically prohibited by the U.S. Department of Education. (This 67 percent includes 25 percent who report always using federal special education funds for this purpose and 42 percent did not respond to this item on the survey.) Although this pattern probably reflects well-intentioned efforts by school administrators to supplement inadequate funds for services for these teenagers, this is not an allowable use of federal Education of the Handicapped Act funds.

There are indications of a warming trend in the school climate for pregnant and parenting students, too. Many schools comply with important Title IX requirements. Most importantly, none of the schools use pregnancy or parenting as a reason to expel or suspend students. Further, none required that these students enroll in a special program or school, or have home instruction, rather than stay in regular classes.

Also, some schools have special initiatives to help pregnant and parenting teens stay in school. For example, eighty-three percent of the schools report that they always make special efforts–such as counseling, flexible scheduling, and enrollment in special classes or programs–to keep pregnant and parenting students in school. Forty-two percent sometimes or usually sponsor programs for the parents of pregnant and parenting teens.

Following are the highlights of the Equality Center's study of the school climate for pregnant and parenting teenagers. The majority of the items on the survey consisted of statements, with respondents asked to indicate whether they were *Always, Usually, Sometimes* or *Never* true, based on their best information about school practices. The key findings are expressed in terms of percentages of the twelve schools surveyed, with each school equalling 8.3 percent. When not all the schools responded to an item, the percentage was calculated based on those that did respond.

## ATTITUDES TOWARDS PREGNANT AND PARENTING TEENS

**Administrators and teachers do not see teen pregnancy and parenting as a dropout issue.**

*A dropout-prevention program that ignores teen pregnancy and parenting is inadequate, since nationwide studies show that 41 percent of the girls who drop out cite pregnancy or marriage as their reason for leaving school.*

- Eighty-three percent of schools surveyed report that their principal never or only sometimes mentions teen pregnancy and parenting in the context of dropouts. None report that their principals always mention teen pregnancy and parenting.

- Only one in three schools report that efforts to keep students from dropping out of school always or usually include a focus on teen pregnancy and parenting. Two-thirds say dropout-prevention efforts either never or only sometimes include teen pregnancy and parenting.

- Only seventeen percent of the schools keep attendance, dropout or enrollment statistics on pregnant and parenting teens.

- Pregnant students often disappear from school before graduation. Of the ten high schools surveyed, half report only five or fewer pregnant girls in last year's graduating class, and another 40 percent report that they do not know how many pregnant girls have graduated. These low figures are not due to small school size: half of these schools have enrollments of 1,000 to 2,000 and one has over 7,500 students.

**Teachers and administrators view pregnant girls and teenage mothers as second-class students.**

Students are as influenced by attitudes as by policies. Pregnant and parenting students are much more likely to succeed where school personnel see them as entitled to as much thoughtful help as other students.

- Fifty-five percent of the respondents report that sometimes teachers think pregnant and parenting students are morally or intellectually inferior.

- Almost half (45 percent) report that teachers or school personnel view pregnant girls and teen mothers more harshly than they view teen fathers, with nine percent saying that they usually view girls more harshly than boys.

- Twenty percent of the high schools sometimes treat unmarried pregnant students differently from married pregnant students.

- Only 50 percent say that pregnant students with good grades always get a lot of help from teachers or counselors to stay in school. This percentage drops to 42 percent for pregnant girls with poor grades.

## ATTENDANCE

**Schools do not allow pregnant teens the scheduling flexibility they need to stay in school.**

*Pregnant students have special medical needs, including prenatal care. They may also experience such problems as fatigue, nausea, morning sickness or frequent urination. Feeling awkward and uncomfortable already, a pregnant student who has to deal with rigid attendance policies may find it easier to drop out. Once she does, she is not likely to return.*

- Forty-two percent of schools surveyed do not always excuse absences due to problems associated with pregnancy, such as fatigue, nausea and morning sickness.

- Forty-two percent report that teachers are not always flexible enough to excuse pregnant students to go to the bathroom or health room for problems associated with pregnancy.

- Sixty-seven percent do not always make arrangement for pregnant students who need to urinate frequently to leave the classroom quickly and with minimal disruption (such as a standing hall pass). Eight percent *never* make such arrangements.

- Fifty-eight percent do not always make arrangements for pregnant students who have difficulty moving quickly (e.g., an elevator pass or allowing students to leave class five minutes early). Eight percent *never* make such arrangements.

**Schools do not grant sufficient medical leave for childbirth.**

*Title IX requires that schools grant a student as much time as her doctor says is necessary for a full recovery from childbirth, and then reinstate her to the status she had when her leave began.*

- A full twenty-five percent of schools do not always grant pregnant students leave from school for childbirth and recovery from childbirth for as long as is medically necessary. In other words, one-fourth of schools surveyed violate this important requirement of Title IX.

- Only half of the schools always reinstate students to the status they held when leave for pregnancy and childbirth began. Those that do not are in violation of Title IX.

**Schools do not allow caring for a sick child as an excused absence.**

*A young mother or father who cannot get an excused absence to care for a sick child may be forced to choose between being a responsible parent and meeting school attendance requirements.*

- Twenty-five percent of schools do not always give excused absences to students who have sick children and/or who have doctor's appointments for their babies.

## COURSES AND PROGRAMS

**Not all schools offer courses on parenting and child care.**

*Parenting and child care courses can provide necessary information these teens may not get elsewhere, as well as provide an incentive to stay in school.*

- Two-thirds (67 percent) of all schools surveyed offer parenting and child care classes.

- While 80 percent of the high schools offer parenting and child care classes, *none* of the middle or junior high schools do–even though this age group has the fastest growing rate of pregnancy.

**Schools channel pregnant and parenting students into a specific course of study.**

*Some schools offer excellent programs and courses for pregnant and parenting students. Other schools track these students into special programs that may not be appropriate. If pregnant and parenting teens are pushed into special programs because the regular program is insensitive to their needs, then changes are needed to make the regular program more hospitable. Pregnant and parenting students need and are entitled to the full range of educational opportunities available to other students.*

- Twenty-five percent of the schools usually or sometimes track pregnant and parenting students into a specific area, such as home economics.
- Eight percent require pregnant and parenting students to take certain courses because of their pregnancy or parenthood.

**Family life education courses provide too little information and reach too few students.**

*Too many teens have inaccurate and harmful ideas about sex, relationships, pregnancy and pregnancy prevention. Family life education or sex education courses can provide teens with information as well as decision-making skills.*

- All schools surveyed *offer* some form of family life education.
- Only 20 percent of high schools always teach family life education to each student.
- Of the four schools that always teach family life education to all students, only two have courses that always cover life planning and how to make decisions about when to have a baby.
- Less than half (42 percent) of the schools always cover contraception and birth control in family life education courses.

## CHILD CARE

**Lack of good child care causes teen parents, especially teen mothers, to drop out of school.**

*Without a place to take their babies, teenage parents cannot complete their education.*

- Almost all (92 percent) of the schools report that lack of adequate child care makes it very hard for teen mothers to stay in school.
- Over half (58 percent) of the respondents emphatically say child care is the biggest barrier to parenting teens staying in school. Another 25 percent list "lack of support services" or "finances" (which includes being able to pay for child care).

**Most schools do not help parenting teens get adequate infant care.**

*Nationally, the demand for infant care exceeds the supply and costs have skyrocketed. This makes it difficult for a teen parent to even find infant care, much less be able to afford it.*

- None of the schools surveyed have on-site infant care. One school has a toddler center–meaning that a teen parent has to find other child care for the first two years.
- Only 27 percent of those responding indicate that infant and child care always is available close to the school grounds. Thirty-six percent report that nearby child care never is available.
- None of the schools use school buses to help teen parents get their infants to child care.

## WORKING WITH OTHER AGENCIES

**Schools often don't coordinate efforts with other agencies.**

*Vital to any effort to provide services for pregnant and parenting teens is cooperation and collaboration with other agencies. A teen parent easily can get lost in the bureaucratic maze. Teens may not even know what services they need, much less what services are available or how to get them. For example, few teens are aware of the need for prenatal or well-baby care.*

- Half of the schools always have a local committee or organization to help coordinate services for pregnant and parenting teens.

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- Fifty percent report that the school and the health department always work together to arrange schedules, transportation, etc., so that pregnant and parenting teens can get needed health services without missing school. Seventeen percent report that the school and the health department *never* make such arrangements.

- Even fewer schools (42 percent) always work with the social services department to make similar arrangements. Seventeen percent never work with social services.

**School staff do not appropriately refer pregnant and parenting teens to other agencies.**

- Only 25 percent say that school personnel always refer pregnant and parenting teens to the health department. Seventeen percent *never* refer these students to the health department.

- Two-thirds of schools report that someone in the school always knows about services available from the health department and works with pregnant and parenting teens to help them get health services for themselves and their children.

- Only half report that there is always someone in the school who knows about programs and services available from the social services department (such as AFDC, Food Stamps, WIC, child care, etc.) and works with pregnant and parenting teens to help them get assistance.

- Only 25 percent say school personnel always refer pregnant and parenting teens to community agencies and only 9 percent always make referrals to local employment and training agencies.

- Some schools clearly do not view coordination as their responsibility. As one said, "Our parents take care of these needs."

## HEALTH SERVICES

**Schools provide little information on prenatal care and nutrition.**

*There is a strong link between teen pregnancy and infant mortality. Teens need information on nutrition and prenatal care. Some schools offer on-site prenatal care. Others provide information on how to get prenatal care.*

- Only 58 percent of the schools always have information on prenatal care and nutrition available from a school nurse or health aide.

- A third of schools always offer prenatal care in their own health facilities.

- While half of the schools report that the school nurse or health aide always conducts active outreach to pregnant students to encourage good prenatal care, 25 percent either never conduct this outreach or do not have a school nurse or health aide.

**At many schools, health services are much too limited.**

*Health services offered in a school setting or coordinated with schools are increasingly important. The growing health needs of children and youth, the rising cost of health care, and the long working hours of many parents make it difficult for children to get needed medical attention.*

- While 25 percent of the schools offer comprehensive health services (one has a school-based health clinic and two have health rooms with full-time nurses), the other 75 percent provide few or no health services to students. Services in these schools range from a health room with no nurse or with an aide, to no health services at all.

- One survey respondent commented, "We have only two full-time nurses to serve all [7,600] students." Another wrote, "School health services are inadequate for *all* students."

## EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

**Some schools deny pregnant and parenting students full participation in extracurricular activities.**

*Pregnant and parenting students who are shut out of extracurricular activities have less incentive to stay in school. In addition, arbitrarily barring pregnant students from these activities, denying participation because of marital status or because a student once was pregnant, or having different standards for teen mothers and fathers violate Title IX.*

- All of the schools that responded say that pregnant and parenting students can always be club members, be on the ballot for "Class Favorites" and participate in graduation ceremonies.

- However, this sometimes changes when it comes to leadership roles. At one high school, pregnant and parenting students can not always run for student government, be club or class officers, or run for prom or homecoming queen or court.

## COUNSELING AND FINANCIAL AID

**Counselors and teachers are not trained to deal with the problems of pregnant and parenting teens.**

*Pregnant and parenting students need the same kind of counseling that other students need–as well as referrals and information about prenatal health, childbirth, child care, parenting and child support.*

- Forty-two percent of schools do not always provide job counseling by someone who is familiar with the unique needs and problems of pregnant and parenting students.

- Seventy-five percent report that teachers and counselors get training on issues around teen pregnancy and parenting either only sometimes or never; only twenty-five percent usually or always get this training.

**Few schools sponsor peer support groups or activities for teen parents and their children.**

*Students who are pregnant or parenting can learn and get support and encouragement from each other.*

- Eighteen percent of the respondents report that their schools always sponsor peer support groups for pregnant and parenting teens. Forty-five percent never do, and twenty-seven percent do sometimes.

- Almost none of the schools sponsor activities for teen parents and their children–92 percent never do, 8 percent sometimes do.

**Few schools make special efforts to reach out to teen fathers.**

*School need to show that they take seriously the problems–and the responsibilities–of teen fathers.*

- Sixty-four percent of the schools never offer special services designed for teen fathers.

- Only eighteen percent of the school always provide services, such as counseling or a support group, designed for teen fathers.

**Schools often do not consider the increased needs of pregnant and parenting students when making decisions or recommendations about financial aid for additional education or training.**

*Parenthood is expensive. Without adequate financial resources, a parenting student may be unable to continue her or his education.*

- Thirty percent of high schools surveyed say that pregnant and parenting students are not always eligible for scholarships, financial aid or prizes on the same basis as other students.

- When asked about special scholarships for pregnant and parenting students, three-quarters of the schools either never provide such scholarships or did not respond to the question.

## SURVEY METHODOLOGY AND SAMPLE

In the spring of 1987, the Equality Center sent surveys to eighteen preselected schools nationwide. Twelve schools (67 percent) responded.

The Equality Center's study was prompted in large part by recognition that research on school policies and practices affecting pregnant and parenting teenagers is scanty, despite the magnitude of the problem and the implications for school dropout. Two studies that have focused on these issues are the Academy for Educational Development's 1988 report on nine urban school districts and the Rand Corporation's 1980 study of special programs for pregnant or parenting students in eleven school districts.[1] Several localities also have studied school policies and practices affecting pregnant and parenting students.[2]

### THE SURVEY

The Center identified a person at each institution to complete the survey. These people were either administrators (assistant superintendents, principals, assistant principals, project directors and supervisors) or staff (teachers and counselors).

In addition to the survey, the Center requested copies of any school policies regarding pregnant and parenting students on such subjects as absenteeism, excused absences, home instruction, suspension/expulsion, criteria for participation in extracurricular activities and athletics, and requirements for medical certification. Only three schools sent copies of official policies. This low response may mean such policies do not exist at these schools, that the person filling out the survey was not aware of such policies, or simply that the person did not have easy access to copies of policies.

The survey consisted of 127 items divided into three sections. The first section requested background information. The second section asked how pregnant and parenting students are treated. The third section consisted of open-ended questions.

The eleven categories for the second section of the survey were: courses and programs; grades; attendance, expulsion/suspension and scheduling flexibility; honors and academic recognition; financial aid and scholarships; student records, recommendations, job placement and counseling, extracurricular activities; access to school-provided and school-facilitated health services; coordination with other agencies; child care; and other treatment.

The majority of the items in this second section (99 out of 110 items) consisted of a statement to which the respondent was asked to indicate: How often is this true? The four responses were: *Always, Usually, Sometimes, Never.* We asked respondents to give the best answer that they could, based on any information they had.

The survey instructions explained:

> Sometimes a statement might be Always (or Never) true because of official school or Board of Education policies. More often, a statement will be Always, Usually, Sometimes or Never true because of decisions made by individual teachers, administrators, counselors, etc.

The survey instructions asked respondents to base their answer on *what actually happens in their school*, even if there was no official policy one way or the other.

This section of the questionnaire was structured so that there was not a pattern to "right" answers. That is, sometimes "Always" was the answer most supportive of a good climate for pregnant and parenting teens: sometimes "Never" was the most supportive answer.

In reporting the findings of the survey, we have indicated the *percentage* of schools responding in a given way. Although the sample was representative, it was also relatively small (twelve schools). Each school equalled 8.33 percent of the total. Consequently, in interpreting the results of the study, the reader should look first at large percentages.

The third section of the survey consisted of open-ended questions to elicit qualitative information. For example: "How do you think teachers view pregnant and parenting girls?" "How do you think teachers view teenage fathers?"

## THE SAMPLE

The sample selected was intentionally diverse. Of the twelve schools, two were from the Northeast, four from the Mid-Atlantic, two from the South, two from the Midwest, and two from the West. School sizes ranged from 450 to more than 7,500 students. City/town sizes ranged from less than 10,000 to over three million. One school was vocational, five were comprehensive high school-vocational schools, three were high schools, one was K-12, one was a middle school (6-8), and one was junior high (7-9)

We also wanted economic diversity among the survey sample. Using the number of free and reduced-price school lunches as an indicator of the socio-economic status of the students, the schools ranged from enrolling mostly low-income students to mostly middle- and upper-income students. At the low-income end, eighty percent of the students at one school and sixty-three percent at another received free or reduced-price lunches. The percentage was between ten and thirty at four schools, and at the upper-income end, less than five percent received free or reduced-price lunches at one school. This information was provided by seven of the twelve schools.

Finally, we selected schools with varying racial and ethnic student populations. Eight schools had predominantly white students, one had predominantly Black students, one was half-Black and half-white, one was predominantly Hispanic, and one did not provide this information.

The twelve schools in the survey were:

Benito Juarez High School
Chicago, IL

Natchitoches Parish
Natchitoches, LA

Thibodaux High School
Thibodaux, LA

Bladensburg High School
Bladensburg, MD

Gaithersburg Junior High School
Gaithersburg, MD

Southern Middle School
Lusby, MD

North Caroline High School
Ridgely, MD

Minuteman Vocational Technical High School
Lexington, MA

White Fish High School
White Fish, MT

Guilderland Central High School

Guilderland Center, NY

Cleveland High School
Portland, OR

Stevens Point High School
Stevens Point, WI

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1. See: (1) McGee, Elizabeth A. and Archer, Elayne. *Improving Educational Opportunities for Pregnant and Parenting Students.* New York: Academy for Educational Development, 1988. (2) Zellman, Gail L. *The Response of the Schools to Teenage Pregnancy and Parenthood.* Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation, 1981. (3) Zellman, Gail L. *A Title IX Perspective on the School's Response to Teenage Pregnancy and Parenthood.* Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation, 1981.

2. See: (1) Heas, G. Alfred; Green, Denise O'Neil; Stapleton, Elliott; and Reyes, Olga. *Invisibly Pregnant: Teenage Mothers in the Chicago Public Schools.* Chicago: Chicago Panel on Public School Policy and Finance, 1988. (2) Illinois Caucus on Teenage Pregnancy. *Illinois Schools and Teenage Pregnancy: Report of a Survey.* Chicago: Illinois Caucus on Teenage Pregnancy, 1985.

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# CAREER EDUCATION FOR TEEN PARENTS
# ERIC DIGEST NO. 148

*(ED376272)*

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Early parenthood and its effect on the education, employment, and economic dependence of the upcoming generation of adult citizens in the United States is a national concern. Although the number of teenagers is decreasing, the incidence of teenage pregnancies is not. Over 10 percent (1 in 10) of all teenage girls become pregnant each year. Some of these girls will elect to terminate their pregnancies, but many will carry their babies to term and give birth. "Between 1986 and 1989, teen birthrates in the United States increased 15 percent to their highest level in 15 years" (Rosenheim and Testa 1992, p. 1). The outlook for these teen parents who have educational deficiencies, episodic work histories, and other barriers to employment is not good.

This special population of young adults will need increased help in all areas of career preparation—academic and vocational education, employability and life skills development—if they are to overcome the difficulties that hinder their successful transition to adulthood.

This Digest examines the demographic, life course, and employment characteristics of teenaged parents and explores their psychosocial, life management, and job-related needs, highlighting the characteristics and outcomes of recent career development programs designed to assist them.

## CHARACTERISTICS OF TEENAGE PARENTHOOD

The traditional progression of adolescence to adulthood has been education, job preparation and employment, marriage and parenthood. Contemporary teenage parenthood represents a variation in that traditional pattern, which in many cases is thought to be intentional. Rosenheim and Testa (ibid.) propose that the "recent rise in levels of teenage childbearing is not simply the chance result of unprotected sexual intercourse but may reflect teenagers' decision to deviate from society's age-graded pathway to adulthood" (p. 10). They note that the shrinking number of unskilled jobs that once supported large numbers of youth and the increasing educational and training requirements for current and emerging skilled jobs are lengthening youth transition from adolescence to adulthood by as much as 10 years. The extension of economic dependency into the middle or late 20s "requires young people to follow a lengthened social timetable for when they complete their education, school, enter the labor force, marry, and become parents" (ibid., p. 3). Although increasing numbers of youth are adapting to this lengthened timetable, the adaptation by low-income and minority youth is lagging. "Adolescents from disadvantaged classes, especially in nations that tolerate greater social inequalities, see less reward for delaying their transition to parenthood" (ibid., p. 16). Unfortunately, the ramifications of such decisions are costly, to teenaged parents, their children, and society.

The demographic characteristics of teenaged parents reveal a majority who are in the 18-21 year range, live in poverty, have dropped out of school, and are unemployed and unmarried. Although some teenagers resume their education after they become parents, their potential for high school graduation is often dependent upon their support network and life course adaptation. Data from a study of Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) recipients in Chicago and suburban Cook County, Illinois, show that "high school graduation was strongly dependent on adolescent welfare recipients' remaining in their parental home and delaying marriage" (ibid., p. 110). More than half of the women in the study who chose this living option earned a high school diploma or General Educational Development (GED) certificate by age 20.

In general, it appears that teen mothers tend to have greater educational success than teen fathers. Achatz and MacAllum (1994) report that in their study of young unwed fathers over half (53 percent) of the teenaged mothers in the study sample obtained a high school diploma or GED certificate, whereas only 38 percent of the fathers did.

Employment patterns of teen parents show high unemployment and sporadic employment history for both sides. The unemployment rate for teenaged mothers in March 1988 was 39.4 percent, with the rate for black teenage mothers reaching 48.8 percent (Nash 1991). Current statistics for teenaged fathers, obtained from the young unwed fathers study, show 57 percent of the fathers in the samples were not employed at the time of the study. Of those who were employed at intake, 61 percent had been on their jobs for 4 months or less (Achatz and

MacAllum 1994). Barriers to employment include family responsibilities, expectations of others, lack of role models and supports, transportation problems, unfamiliarity with the employment network, criminal records, alcohol, and drugs.

## CAREER DEVELOPMENT NEEDS OF TEENAGE PARENTS

Given the educational, social, economic, and employment histories common among teenaged parents, career development is a priority for helping this group make the transition from adolescence to economic independence. These early parents are in special need of psychosocial development, life skills development, career awareness, and job skills development.

Ettinger (1991) lists a number of psychosocial factors that affect the education and training of teen parents (p. 8-5): low self-esteem; low aspirations, motivation, and expectations; unrealistic goals and ambitions; limited emotional resources for support and maintenance; and lack of role models. To help teen parents overcome the ramifications of their disadvantaged backgrounds, Ettinger suggests that attention be given to the development of the following types of life skills (p. 8-5):

- Building of self-concept
- Building support systems
- Learning how to access available child care, transportation services and other support services necessary to one's survival
- Learning how to meet the challenge of combining work and family roles
- Learning how to give and receive emotional support
- Networking for work opportunities and connections
- Enhancing interpersonal communication and relationships

The importance of career awareness and career choice options is discussed by Nash (1991), who emphasizes that teenaged mothers, particularly, are at the planning stages of their career lives. Since many of these women will be the sole support of their families, they need to be aware of and consider the salaries associated with various occupations as well as the academic/skill requirements before selecting an area to pursue. The same is true for teenaged fathers as they match their interests and availabilities to various career options. There is much information available about nontraditional jobs for men and women, and each state has a sex equity coordinator who oversees programs for disadvantaged people seeking to obtain nontraditional employment. Information about programs available within the state can be obtained from these coordinators.

Several projects have been initiated to help teenaged parents in their transition to adulthood and economic independence. One such program is the Public/Private Ventures' young Unwed Fathers Pilot Project. This project studied 460 young fathers 16-24 years old enrolled at 6 sites for 2 years. The goal of the project was to help young fathers, poor and from families and neighborhoods with few resources and economic opportunities, to acknowledge their parenting obligations and gain the skills and access the opportunities to help them meet these obligations. Young Unwed Fathers: Report from the Field, an intensive 18-month ethnographic study of 47 young fathers from this group, notes the following modest outcomes. "Twice as many fathers were working at the time of the follow-up survey than were working at intake, though nearly half were not employed. Average weekly earnings of fathers employed at follow-up were $100 higher than those of fathers who were employed at intake; however it is not possible to determine whether these gains were due to the program intervention or would have occurred naturally through maturation and additional work experience" (Achatz and MacAllum 1994, p. 11). The report points out that the public welfare, child support enforcement, and employment training systems often work counter to the young men's desires to improve their skills and income.

Another project—The Comprehensive Career Development Project for Secondary Schools in Tennessee—has been reviewed in a monograph written by practitioners involved in the project's implementation. In his part of the monograph, Hale (1989) recommends two ways of addressing the problem of teenage parenthood: (1) sex education and (2) the provision of school-based day care and parenting centers for those teenagers who are already (or soon will be) parents. According to Hale "these strategies have proven viable and effective avenues for giving the students a better change to complete their education, while also offering training in responsible parenting" (p. 35).

The Adolescent Family Life Demonstration Projects, which were initiated in Fall 1987, expanded the health, education, and social service programs to include employability development components. Each of the six sites selected for the project—Camden, New Jersey; Savannah, Georgia; Houston, Texas; Tucson, Arizona; San Francisco, California; and Salem, Oregon—used different models for increasing the employability of teenage parents. The employability components initiated across the six sites included education/employment counseling for adolescent mothers, preemployment and vocational skills training, employability and parenting skills development, and social work counseling for fathers. The goal of the projects was to increase the employability skills (education and job readiness), not necessarily employment. The majority of the project participants were female, single, and had never been married. The racial composition varied depending on the site. In Savannah, for example, the participants were primarily black teenage mothers who had dropped out of school and had no employment history. At the conclusion of the project, 40 percent of the program participants at all six sites who had been dropouts were in a school program (Cohen 1991, p. 12). Almost half of the participants in the Savannah site returned to some type of educational program. The majority of the participants at the Tucson and

San Francisco sites stayed in school and increased their grade levels.

Cohen identified three factors that greatly influence the implementation of the Adolescent Family Life employability programs:

- Appropriateness of the program to the targeted population
- The community network and influence
- After-care or post-program follow-up

The importance of these factors is consistent across other projects as well.

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# TREND 4:
# THE WIDESPREAD USE OF TOBACCO, ALCOHOL, AND OTHER DRUGS BY CHILDREN AND YOUTH

The problems of drug use and abuse in the United States have escalated over the past 30 years. Drugs that were initially viewed as only problematic for adults, grew to be everyone's problem. By the late 1960s, youth were using illegal substances in great numbers. Drug use became a recognizable, if not accepted, symbol of the counterculture. By the 1970s, drugs became readily available to students in high schools and even lower grades. While the source of this availability was initially the "streets," it quickly moved into other settings such as the school. Drug use, manufacture and sale increased dramatically until schools recognized a need to make a response. Initially this response was to try to forbid the use and sale of drugs by enforcing laws and regulations. But this approach resulted only in making drug activity more covert.

During the latter part of the 1970s, research was conducted on the physiological effects of drugs and the accompanying social problems of school dropout, delinquency, and teen pregnancy. At this juncture, schools moved toward the idea that children should be educated to completely avoid drugs. As educators struggled with how to best teach children this "no use" message, questions such as these were posed:

- Is drug education rightly the province of the schools?
- Who should be providing the drug education?
- What is the ultimate goal of drug education?

The articles included in this section provide the reader with insight as to how the schools have answered these questions over the ensuing years.

### Early Focus on Alcohol

In examining documents from the beginning years of ERIC, it can be seen that the school's first response was targeted on alcohol. In contrast to the currently advocated "no use" message, educators at a 1966 national *Conference on Alcohol Education* focused on teaching children responsible behaviors. As one presenter put it, "I believe...that educational attempts which are colored by total rejection of the use of alcohol...are bound to affect only a relatively small minority of those who are to be influenced...My own personal view is that the problem of alcohol education is more like that of driver training than of, say, education in respect to narcotics. In the latter, it is indeed an all-or-nothing matter. But we do not tell people never to drive because it could lead to accidents. Instead, we try to teach them to drive carefully and skillfully. With youngsters in whose case total abstinence is a hopeless cause, we might consider the compromise of doing the same: instead of advocating outright and complete abstinence, we might try to teach them to minimize the undesirable effects of drinking–openly recognizing, at the same time, that there may be also pleasant and even desirable ones."

The goal of alcohol education at this time was to help growing and developing young individuals to use alcohol sensibly and in moderation. The linkages between alcohol use and societal problems were not made; the primary concern was on safety alone. The school's responsibility centered on reducing the incidence of drunk driving incidents involving high school students.

### Fear as a Teaching Tool

As the issue of drugs became a major societal concern in the early 1970s, the educational system began to focus on the abuse of all drugs, including alcohol. Drug abuse was targeted as a force that had to be stopped and the primary tool for accomplishing this was fear. In the report *Different Strokes: Models of Drug Abuse Prevention Education*, the following is observed: "For the past forty years, the legal-political model has been the most popular approach to prevention of drug abuse. Drug abusing behavior is seen as wrong and made a crime." Decisions to not use drugs were presumably rooted in fear of the law and the probability of obtaining a criminal record.

### Federal Intervention

By the mid-1970s, the recognition of drug abuse as a national problem was reflected in the active leadership role taken on by the federal government. The NEA Task Force on Drug Education in a 1972 report entitled *Drug Education Awakening* predicted that "More than a quarter of a billion dollars will be spent in the next five years on education, rehabilitation and research efforts." As predicted, federal funds were allocated for large and small efforts in the areas of education, rehabilitation, and research throughout the 1970s.

### Training and Evaluation

Once federal monies were available, education programs focused on two major issues: the training of drug educators and program evaluation. The question of who should be conducting drug education was one of the first issues to be debated. Initially, it was believed that drug education was the province of health educators, including perhaps counselors and physical education teachers. Later, it was felt that the problem demanded a greater response, and training in drug education was extended to all classroom teachers.

Questions about evaluation were more difficult for educators to answer. It has long been recognized that evaluations of efforts which are designed to change attitudes and behavior are very difficult to perform. Behavioral changes, which have to be measured over time, require a longitudinal component, which is both expensive and cumbersome for schools to support. In addition, questions continued to be raised about what to look for in evaluating drug education. Knowledge about specific drugs, how to use them, and how they are acquired were the initial foci of early evaluation studies.

By the mid-1980s, the focus changed away from cognitive assessments to affective ones. "Cognitively-based prevention programs have gained a reputation of being ineffective," declared the report *A Primary Prevention Drug Education Program for School Children: An Attempt at Evaluation.*

Through evaluative efforts and the work of professionals in the rehabilitation of drug abusers, two groups of individuals were identified as most susceptible to drug abuse: (1) persons with low self-esteem who are easily influenced by pressures from outside sources, and (2) persons who do not seem to be able to make consistent, well-founded decisions. The results of evaluation were thus fed back into programming. Drug education now turned its attention to enhancing self-esteem and providing children with a foundation for decision-making skills.

### Later Focus on Alcohol

In the area of alcohol education, laws changed over this time period making alcohol use illegal for all K-12 students. In addition, the focus of what to teach also changed over time. In contrast to the first document contained in this review, in *Alcohol: The Gateway Drug*, alcohol is viewed as an addictive, regulated drug. The concept of "responsible use" promulgated by earlier alcohol curricula, was replaced during the mid 1980s with a "no use" message. As stated in the Introduction to *Alcohol: the Gateway Drug*: "In recent years there has been a re-evaluation of the goals and strategies of alcohol and other drug education, and major changes in the approach to this subject have been recommended... As a result of this rethinking of alcohol education strategies, popular consensus has formed to abandon the strategy of attempting to prevent alcohol problems by teaching "responsible drinking" to school students. In place of this strategy, this [document] presents messages that discourage the use of alcohol by students and that reinforce risk avoidance and modern prevention concepts."

### Infusion as a Teaching Tool

By the late 1980s, infusion was the primary focus of all drug education. In the conference presentation, *Perceived Strengths of Drug Education Infusion Strategies and Support From Funding Sources and School Districts*, it was concluded: "It [drug education infusion] promoted local ownership of the curriculum, avoided the labelling of drug education as an 'add-on' and enabled them [the educators] to directly address a high priority societal issue in a professional way..."

### Public/Private Partnerships

Partnerships between the schools and other societal agents concerned with the problems of drug abuse developed during the 1980s. One highly-visible program begun at that time is Project DARE, which places the school in partnership with the law enforcement community. With a fully developed curriculum and relatively low cost, it has been the program of choice for many school districts since 1984. Initial evaluations indicate the program has been received with enthusiasm by educators and that students in Project DARE did, in fact, show less acceptance of substance use and were better prepared to deal with peer pressure. The U.S. Department of Justice publication, *An Invitation to Project DARE: Drug Abuse Resistance Education*, provides an overview of the DARE program.

### Software as a Teaching Tool

An innovative approach to drug education begun in the late 1980s, was the idea of using computer-assisted learning as a teaching tool. In the article, *Software for Substance Abuse Education: A Critical Review of Products*, several computer software products for substance abuse education are reviewed. The authors found the software as a group to be "somewhat disappointing." While this teaching methodology offered promise, the authors found that promise largely unfulfilled.

### Looking for Quality

This section closes with a tool for helping educators identify effective K-12 drug education materials ("Criteria for the Selection of Drug Abuse Prevention Curricula"). Using indicators relevant to all educational programs as well as drug specific criteria, English and Sancho of the Southwest Regional Laboratory have devised a workbook for wading through the "overwhelming" number of curricula on the market. As the authors so aptly observe, "One can become so inundated with these classroom instructional materials that a well-reasoned selection process never occurs. Then, when the deadline is near, the curriculum that gets selected may be one from the company with the best marketing strategies or the one that is best-packaged, rather than the one based on sound prevention education strategies."

This tool, which is a bid for quality, is an appropriate conclusion to this review. It offers hope to educators in selecting programs to help students withstand the temptations of a world that continues to include tobacco, alcohol, and other drugs.

**Summary**

This review of the past 30 years indicates clearly that there is increasing interest in the problems related to tobacco, alcohol, and other drugs and the appropriate response for schools to take. While there have been some measured successes, the need for further refinement and development of quality curricula, teacher training and evaluation is essential.

# ALCOHOL EDUCATION CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS
## *(ED013225)*

U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare
March 1966

### Agenda

| | |
|---|---|
| TIME: | 9:00 a.m. |
| PLACE: | Department of Health, Education, and Welfare<br>Third and Independence, S.W., Room 5051<br>Washington, D.C. 20201 |
| CHAIRMAN: | Philip R. Lee, M.D.<br>Assistant Secretary for Health and Scientific Affairs<br>Department of Health, Education, and Welfare<br>Chairman, Secretary's Committee on Alcoholism |
| 9:00 - 9:15 | Registration |
| 9:15 - 9:45 | Greetings and Opening Statement |
| | Philip R. Lee, M.D. |
| | Interest and Activities |
| | Harold Howe, II<br>Commissioner of Education |
| 9:45 - 10:00 | Coffee Break |
| 10:00 - 12:00 | Alcohol Education -- Historical Development |
| | Selden D. Bacon, Ph.D.<br>Director<br>Center of Alcohol Studies<br>Rutgers - The State University |
| | Clues from Research |
| | Harold W. Demone, Jr., Ph.D.<br>Executive Director<br>The Medical Foundation, Inc. |
| | George Maddox, Ph.D.<br>Professor of Sociology<br>Duke University |
| | Robert Jones, M.A.<br>Assistant Director<br>Center of Alcohol Studies<br>Rutgers - The State University |

12:00 - 1:00 Lunch

1:00 - 5:00 Learning and Behavior--Alcohol Education for What?

Godfrey Hochbaum, Ph.D.
Chief, Behavioral Science Section
Public Health Service

PANEL--Alcohol Education in the School
(5 minute presentation by each member)

Moderator: Herbert Conrad, Ph.D.
Program Evaluation Officer
Bureau of Research
Office of Education

The Teacher

Frances Todd, Ph.D
San Francisco Public Schools

The School Administrator

C. E. Holloday
Superintendent of Schools
Tupelo City Schools
Tupelo, Mississippi

The Health Educator

Lena DiCicco, M.P.H.
Coordinator of Health Education
Division of Alcoholism
Massachusetts Department of Public Health

Teacher of Teachers

Robert Russell, Ed.D.
Associate Professor
Department of Health Education
Southern Illinois University

State Education Department

Ruth Byler, Ph.D.
Consultant, Health and Physical Education
Connecticut Department of Education

The College Teacher

Mrs. Doris W. Sands, M.A., R.N.
Instructor
Department of Health Education
University of Maryland

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# ALCOHOL EDUCATION CONFERENCE—MARCH 29, 1966

## Conference Proceedings

### Activities of the Department

Philip R. Lee, M.D.
Assistant Secretary for Health and Scientific Affairs
Department of Health, Education, and Welfare
Chairman, Secretary's Committee on Alcoholism

On behalf of the Secretary's Committee on Alcoholism, it is a pleasure to extend our welcome to you. The members of the Committee will be listening intently to your comments and ideas on alcohol education.

The significance of alcoholism as one of our important national health problems was clearly indicated by President Johnson in his Domestic Health and Education Message to the Congress earlier this month. He said, and I quote:

> The alcoholic suffers from a disease which will yield eventually to scientific research and adequate treatment. Even with the present limited state of our knowledge, much can be done to reduce the untold suffering and uncounted waste caused by this affliction.
>
> I have instructed the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare to:
>
> – appoint an Advisory Committee on Alcoholism;
>
> – establish in the Public Health Services a center for research on the cause, prevention, control and treatment of alcoholism;
>
> – develop an education program in order to foster public understanding based on scientific fact;
>
> – work with public and private agencies on the state and local level to include this disease in comprehensive health programs.

The Department's response to the President is now being brought to completion. When the details are made available, I think most of you will recognize that we are accepting our responsibilities in this field. In general, I can tell you now, the plans for extended alcoholism activities are designed for the more effective simulation, support and implementation of programs for the control and prevention of alcoholism, and the treatment and rehabilitation of alcoholics.

The interest of this Department in many facets of alcoholism is not new. The Office of Education, the Welfare Administration, the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration, and the Public Health Service, for example, have been supporting and conducting research, training, and demonstration projects. St. Elizabeths hospital, besides providing treatment for alcoholic patients, includes a broad-based training program for many health professions. The Social Security Administration has established within its Office of Employee Health, Division of Management, the first program in this Department for the employee with a drinking or alcoholism problem. To insure safety and efficacy, the Food and Drug Administration evaluates new drugs which are used in the treatment of alcoholic patients. The Public Health Service's National Institute of Mental Health has been the focal point for alcoholism activities in this Department.

I should like to cite a few examples which may help to give you a better idea of the broad scope of these activities.

For instance, studies and projects being supported by the National Institute of Mental Health include long-needed investigations of drinking patterns in this country; research on the influence of socio-cultural factors in areas with different cultural groups; and development of community public health programs for the control, prevention, and treatment of alcoholism. The Institute likewise has responsibility for administering the community mental health center program which will be so important to planning alcoholism control operations at the community level.

Of particular importance has been the two- or three-day conferences supported jointly by the National Institute of Mental Health and various State agencies as technical assistance projects. In such conferences concerning alcoholism, education was given special attention.

The VRA provides opportunities for developing alcoholism programs through Federal and State interagency planning. More and more State vocational rehabilitation agencies are developing services to aid the alcoholic.

Through its cooperative research and demonstration program, the Welfare Administration is supporting an exploratory study on alcoholism and dependency. The 1962 Public Welfare Amendments offer important resources to community alcoholism programs.

The Public Health Service's Division of Accident Prevention supports research to determine relationships between the use of alcohol and accidental injury. This Division has a special interest in driver education programs and particularly what is to be taught concerning alcohol. Your comments will be most helpful to this Division, as well as to the Public Health Service's School Health Section, and to the Children's Bureau, whose representatives are with us today.

Activities like these have provided a sound base for moving ahead into an expanded program of alcoholism activities. A more descriptive account of the Department's alcoholism activities and a summary of resources available from agencies of this Department are described in a publication to become available next month. A copy will be sent to you.

Needless to say, education has already played a role in all these activities, and will play a greater part in the future. Education of health professionals and of people with other skills will be required so they can relate their training and experience to alcoholism and related problems. Education is essential for those who will have responsibility for including alcoholism services within comprehensive health service programs. Education will be extremely important in developing, treating and evaluating the control and prevention techniques we have today, as well as those we will undoubtedly create in the future.

Of most importance, however, is the broad, general problem of alcohol education provided to our children and young people in the over-all school setting. I hope you will address yourselves to the significant questions of what should be taught and how it should be taught, who should do the teaching, and how should the teachers be trained?

This is the matter of prime concern to those of us who are doctors, health workers, educators, and Government officials--and to those of us who are parents.

Today we will be focusing attention to these questions. We look to you for your expert advice and guidance.

## ALCOHOL EDUCATION AND THE PROGRAMS OF THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION

Wayne O. Reed
Associate Commissioner for Federal-State Relations Office of Education,
substituting for Harold Howe, II, Commissioner of Education

I speak for more than myself when I say that the Office of Education considers itself a staunch ally in the effort you represent here today. I want you to know that the Office is only too glad to cooperate in supporting this conference, and I hope that our discussions will give all of us a fresh perspective and a new resolve.

As I think about this business of attacking alcoholism and intemperance from the side of education, I remember Herbert Spencer's idea about what knowledge has most worth. Spencer grouped the main activities of human beings under five headings, and then arranged them in the order of what he considered to be their importance. What did he put at the top of the list? He put those activities which directly minister to self-preservation. Above all, Spencer said, a man needs knowledge to guard himself against the incapacities and the slow annihilation that his own bad habits bring him.

Aware of the rightness of Spencer's argument, the Office of Eduation long had on its staff specialists in health and safety education. True, we did not often single out for particular emphasis the problems of educating the young about the effects of alcohol; but this is not to say that we ignored those problems.

I use, you will notice, the past tense. I use it deliberately, for I want to speak briefly on the principal ways in which the Office of Education, until just recently, expressed its interest in alcohol education.

For many years our staff of health educators made themselves generally useful. They ran a clearinghouse of information for State departments of education and professional groups--for anyone in fact who asked us about what was being done around the country to teach the facts about alcohol. They also served on interagency committees in the Federal Government and were consultants to scores of conferences.

In all of their activities these staff members of ours consistently made the point that the more we know about the growth of the human personality and the more we learn about mental health and about alcoholism, the more we see responsibilities falling on the shoulders of education. To the efforts of these members of our staff I think we can credit a great deal of the growing realization across the land today that the schools bear a heavy responsibility for waging a preventive war against the misuse of alcohol--a war they can wage not only by giving our children the hard scientific facts but also by engaging them so deeply in soul-satisfying interests that, when they are grown, they will not even think of turning to alcohol as a way of coping with their problems.

States do differ in the emphasis they place on alcohol education in the schools; but according to the latest report compiled by the Office of Education, all States but two have come to the point where they require, in their laws and regulations, some alcohol and narcotics education in either the elementary or secondary schools--or in both.

So much for the past.

The most exciting things I can tell you today have to do with the opportunities of the future. These opportunities are implicit in the new Federal programs for education--programs which are gradually changing the services that will be available to you from the Office of Education. In the future we will be less likely to give you consultant and advisory services and more likely to give you financial support for programs of your own devising.

One reason for this change grows out of Title V of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. This is the title in which the Congress clearly asks State departments of education to improve themselves, and offers to pay part of the costs of the improvement. Although of all the titles it calls for the smallest appropriation (this year it has 17 million dollars), it holds within it the secret to the success of all the others.

This title got into the act because the Congress recognized that local school, as it grows and gets more responsibilities, needs more and more leadership from its State department of education. Through this title the Congress spoke up for the pre-eminence of the State in the intergovernmental partnership for education. It spoke up for the fact that the State, even when it delegates authority to that extension of itself which is the local school board, does not in truth give up any of its ultimate responsibilities either for quality or for equity in education.

This is the agency, you see--the strong State department of education--to which the Office of Education will be relinquishing a good deal of its specialist-consultant functions. There is logic in this change: the State agency is closer to the schools that we are; it is therefore in a position to exert leadership within the framework of the State's special needs and the needs of each community.

Having relinquished a goodly share of our consultant function to the State agencies, what then will we have for you? We have so much that I scarcely know where to begin. Because my time is short, let me stay with the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. And I'll begin at the beginning, with Title I.

Remembering, as you no doubt often do, that the intemperate use of alcohol is often related to other social problems, you will see at once that Title I is pertinent to the problem we consider today. Title I is intended as a weapon against poverty. This year it will put at least 775 million dollars into schools in every one of the States on the basis of the number of poor children they have. The poorest of the poor, for the law has us count only those children in families with incomes of less than $2,000--and children in families getting aid under the Government's program for dependent children.

Any program that does what Title I can be used to do--to strengthen the tie between school and home, to give guidance and counsel to children and parents, and to work at removing such degrading conditions as poor schools and poor recreational facilities--any program like this is bound to be an attack on the problems alcohol can make. Bear in mind that Title I requires the school to work with the community. The school--as it makes new and special efforts in behalf of its educationally disadvantaged children--is asked to coordinate those efforts with the community's program for helping the poor to help themselves. In this combining of school and community efforts to get at the root of our social problems, we can see an opportunity to get a good job done of bringing the facts about alcohol to both children and adults.

Title II, I will pass over quickly. To people like yourselves, who know how much we need good instructional materials of all kinds, it is enough to say that Title II makes available 100 million dollars this year to buy library books for the schools. And not library books only, but textbooks, magazines, tapes, films, phonograph records--any kind of instructional materials we can use to develop positive attitudes in our children, give them the facts in dramatic ways, and awaken their interests in the world about them and in the people of that world.

Before I mention Title III, I would like to refer to a study which many of you know about--a study carried out two years ago in two communities in Mississippi. The State department of education and the State university in that State, with a grant from the National Institute of Health, joined to find out what drinking habits teenagers had, and to find out what in the community had encouraged or restrained these habits. The researchers found many social factors in the drinking habits of these youngsters--so many, in fact, that they were led to make an inference. They inferred that since society had so much to do with the drinking habits of young people, society was the logical instrument for controlling and guiding those habits. In other words, they inferred that the best job of teaching the proper use of alcohol could be done if the whole community--parents, schools, churches and other

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institutions, even the teenagers themselves--put its collective wits and ingenuity to work.

In this inference I find particular reason to mention Title III, and I'll leave the possibilities to your imagination.

Title III provides $75 million this year for an innovation that promises to be one of the most exciting developments in American education. It recognizes the fact that school is not the only place where children learn, and it calls on the schools to enter into close relationships with other community agencies--to draw on the resources of industry and science, of labor, of the arts, and especially of the home.

It is not easy to explain the function of something as new as these centers are, but we can certainly think of them as meeting three needs. First, they will supplement the programs and facilities the schools already have. Second, they will stimulate the schools--and the people who support the schools--into enthusiasm for providing the very best in educational opportunity. Third, they will make experimentation and innovation an integral part of the educational system.

Under the provisions of Title III, the local public schools, working in cooperation with the rest of the community, are determining the kind of centers they will have and the kinds of services they will supply. Within our conception of what this title provides for, there is room for all kinds of activities and studies that will be antidotes for those noxious influences in our society that poison the lives of so many people.

A logical companion to Title III is Title IV--especially that part of Title IV which authorizes as much as 100 million dollars over the next five years for regional research laboratories--laboratories that will work exclusively on the problems of education. We hope eventually to see a network of about twenty of these laboratories spread over the Nation. Each will bring together university scholars, public school people, people in State departments of education, and representatives of business and industry.

Each laboratory will not only do research and experimentation, but will test its findings in the schools of the region. In other words, the researchers will work hand-in-glove with teachers and other school officials, both State and local.

Steps have already been taken toward establishing nine of these laboratories. One of them, it seems to me, might well be working on social problems like the one that brings us together today. Neither the Office of Education, nor any other agency of the Federal Government will be telling these laboratories what to work on; that's up to them and the people in their regions. I venture to suggest that you make it your business to see that alcohol education gets attention here.

As a matter of fact, all of Title IV is a series of amendments to the Cooperative Research Program, which the Congress authorized back in 1954. The program has expanded over the years, but to the best of my knowledge no project related to alcohol education has ever come under its tent. I would like to say to you people that you are in a strategic position to alter this fact. I would like to say that you are in a position to suggest to colleges, universities, State departments of education--in fact to any non-profit agency--that they come forward with some first-rate (and I mean first-rate) proposals for inquiry into the problems of educating people to be temperate. The Bureau of Research in this Office will welcome such proposals; and they will have good prospects for getting Federal support.

Well, it's quite a rich mine, is it not? The richness of it is apparent even on the surface. I propose that you do a bit of prospecting. We, for our part, stand ready to cooperate with you in every way possible, I assure you!

## EDUCATION ON ALCOHOL: A BACKGROUND STATEMENT

Seldon D. Bacon, Ph.D.
Professor of Sociology and Director of the Center of Alcohol Studies,
Rutgers--The State (New Jersey) University

In the past five years we have all read so much in the newspapers and heard so much via television and radio about education and youth and various problems that it seems I should really have some novel and insightful message. I think what I have to say is at least different in its general tone, but I must admit that my reading or listening about bright children and drop-outs, about new, newer and newest mathematics, about buses, teach-ins, sex, and post-natal typewriting has not given me sufficient confidence to give you a new paragraph, let alone a whole speech, on my ideas on startling new concepts in education. In fact, I am largely unconcerned about any new concepts in education as they may relate to the subject of alcohol. It might be intellectually stimulating to consider some new concepts in relation to this subject matter, but I happen to feel that it would be limited to an intellectual exercise--and a rather esoteric pastime at that.

Let me explain this apparently cavalier attitude. It stems, not from notions about educational purposes, conditions, techniques, structure and the like, but from notions about the phenomenon of alcohol and alcohol use, above all it stems from my perception of how a great many categories of people in our society think and feel about alcohol and alcohol use.

It appears to me that thinking and feeling about alcohol and its use were channeled, so to speak, into one of two or three closely related pathways. These pathways were pioneered more than 100 years ago, were well established between 1860 and 1890, and were so magnificently entrenched in the following 50 years that they became almost the only modes of thinking and feeling available to individuals and almost certainly the only modes available to organized groups. As I shall later on indicate in some detail, they were frightfully narrow pathways. They were also pathways characterized by such powerful and organized feeling that it was extremely unlikely that any variation could be attempted, let alone be adopted, by any significant group or institution. As examples, let me suggest such fields as health, law, education, research, welfare and religion. Many changes in those areas rather obviously took place between 1860 and 1940. However, changes in thinking and feeling and action and organization about alcohol and its use as they applied in any of those areas were practically non-existent. As a result, attempting to activate techniques, philosophies, organizational procedures and the like of a 1940 or 1960 type in education (or indeed in any other field) in terms of alcohol phenomena was somewhat like putting radar or air-conditioning on oxcarts or pumping high test gasoline into the ox.

So, I hope it is understood that I am not castigating modern educational theorizing or practice. It may well be wonderful. But whether wonderful or not, it is not particularly pertinent to this problem. But I do feel that education as a process is quite relevant to the phenomena of alcohol use--in fact; rather more pertinent, in my undoubtedly biased scheme of values, than it is to tennis playing, group singing, the language of France, geology, or wood carving.

Therefore, I will adopt a very old-fashioned way of thinking for my discussion of alcohol and education. However, I want to interject one more general introductory note. Those three deeply entrenched, narrow, and militantly defended pathways of thinking and feeling about alcohol and its use, those pathways which for practical purposes were the only pathways from about 1870 to 1950,--their strength began to deteriorate in the 19 forties and by today they are in a state of disarray, of less power either to enthuse those within or to punish those without who happen to be concerned. I do not state that new pathways have emerged. But I will state that felt needs for direction and for action in the general area are as great as ever, if not even greater. I am suggesting that we are in a period of flux. The old techniques and propositions and programs are deteriorating and unattractive. The needs are at least as great as ever. Variations and thrashing around are the rule. No new guide posts or programs have been generally adopted. Most of the new proposals, as is usual in such a situation, are not particularly effective. And as certain innovations are heralded or tried and as they prove inadequate or ineffective, there is a natural tendency to run back to the old pathways; even though at best they are blind alleys, they are familiar blind alleys. In this situation of need, of non-satisfaction, and of greater freedom to try out different approaches, it should hardly surprise anyone here that the field of education should be invaded by the would-be innovators. Health is the social area or institution in which the action has been most noticeable. One or two areas of law enforcement have shown changes. Research has shown some limited change. And one or two large, organized religious groups have been consciously groping for new understanding and policy. There should be no surprise that we are here today. So, I will move on to my rather simple and old-fashioned presentation about education in a subject-matter area which was so long in a narrow, rigid and emotionally powerful pathway of thinking and feeling and which is today in a position of flux.

I will state that education at a minimum must consist of (1) a teacher or communicator, (2) a message or communication, (3) of a pupil or communicatee, (4) the process taking place in relation to a social setting, (5) there being some notion of the purpose in this instigating and maintaining the process and (6) there being some relevant, measurable change in at least some parts of the whole. Remembering these 6 points--communicator, communication, communicatee, social setting, purpose, and effects, I will try to provide a background for the current situation of flux in the matter of formal education and alcohol use.

I will start with the relevant social setting which obtained in the period 1830-1870, the time during which the dominant pathways of feeling and emotion were developed. Between 1790 and 1830 there is clear evidence of widespread concern about what are called problems related to use of alcohol. National organizations were developed. Farm groups, business groups, religious organizations, legislatures, physicians and others were developing ideas, programs, and group structures all directed towards combatting problems related to alcohol use. It may not surprise you to learn that these groups were not in agreement, that they felt dissatisfied with results, that they attached failure of their programs to reduce alcohol problems to all sorts of other groups which they disliked on other grounds, for example, those of different national background, of different religion, of urban vs. rural characteristics, of youth, of money makers and so on, and that their differences led to out-and-out conflict. This conflict was almost entirely resolved by the 18 forties with what may be called the victory of one of the factions. What is surprising is that this victory was to last for more than 100 years. The philosophy and program of this faction came to dominate the thinking and feeling about alcohol beverages and their use throughout the society. Principal symbols of the victorious movement at the time of its emergency might be described as follows. (1) In terms of the nature of the problematic substance, there had been disagreement as to whether distilled spirits alone or all alcohol beverages were the problem--the second position became dominant. (2) In terms of religious belief and interpretation there had been disagreement as to the position of the Bible; the new position was clarion clear: whether the Bible mentioned alcohol, the reference was negative and hostile; the apparently favorable references in the Good Book always involved unfermented fruit juice. (3) In terms of tactics, voluntary decision for abstinence and consequent presentation of abstinent models to others (along with exhoration to abstain) was to become secondary to indoctrination and to the imposition of punitive sanctions for the failure to abstain. (4) Also in terms of tactics and strategy, legislative action against alcohol, followed by strong enforcement, was to be at least as important as educational action. And, (5), in terms of education, legislative action to guarantee all-inclusive educational activity of the preferred type was to become of paramount importance.

It is difficult to communicate adequately the enormous success of this venture. Its organization, its leadership, its resources, its scope, its vitality, its ingenuity and persistence were of the highest order. As of today, all too many persons are inclined to measure its success in terms of the passage of a single law, the 18th amendment. Although an important reflection of its power in the legislative field, this one item is hardly an adequate measure of the Classical American Temperance Movement. Above all, that Movement influenced the thinking and feeling of the whole society about the use of alcohol and did so in dominant fashion. This would have affected the institution of education in any event; with the heavy emphasis placed on educational activity by the Movement its impact in this area was striking.

The philosophy of the Movement in relation to alcohol and its use is of cardinal importance for appreciating our position today. I will give a 6 point outline of that position--my own interpretation, not the Movement's--and will then sketch the three major pathways or viewpoints which seem to comprise the dominant nodes of thinking and feeling about alcohol use as it relates to educational policy and action.

1. The use of alcohol inevitably leads to individual and social deterioration and disaster.

2. Alcohol is evil; spiritually in terms of sin, physiologically in terms of poison, legally in terms of crime.

3. Conversely, alcohol serves no useful functions. All the arguments presented in its defense such as jollification, a source of tax income, medication, family unification, or anxiety reduction for the individual are readily shown to be not only extremely weak in that alcohol is always at best a second or third rate means for achieving such purposes, but in addition, it is well known that alcohol inevitably creates the exact opposite of each of these goals, i.e. remorse, extraordinary government expenditure, disease, family disruption and extreme anxiety.

4. If there is less alcohol, there will be less use. If there is less use, there will be less deterioration, disaster and evil. As "less use" approaches the position of "no use," an enormous scourge to civilization will be removed.

5. Therefore, every attack possible must be leveled against the availability of beverage alcohol. This will be done, first, by legislative elimination, and second, by educating people, above all youth, to hate and fear alcohol. More special targets of attack will be those who produce and distribute alcohol and also those who seem to use alcohol without problems and thereby serve as peculiarly insidious models to others.

6. Finally, it should be noted that one word covered the whole insofar as people were concerned--that word was drink or drinker or drinking. All drink is the same. All drinkers are the same. All drinking is one and the same thing.

Naturally, this is a brief and oversimplified description of the philosophy and program. However, I will turn to the three pathways which stemmed from this Movement. One, of course, was that adopted by the members of the Movement. The second, sometimes labeled as the program of the Wets, was a defensive posture which largely consisted of denials of the Movement's position and of a series of tactics to block or weaken the Movement's program. It hardly could be said to have a positive philosophy of its own, certainly none that went beyond its own survival.

The third category, and in terms of numbers it possibly was always the largest, and probably was enormously so the past 40 years, consisted of people who also adopted a highly defensive position and, even though quite unorganized (except for sporadic moments) were usually negatively oriented towards both the other positions. That is, even though thousands of them voted against Prohibition, they were hardly registering for some vague wet philosophy. That is, even though thousands of them would on other occasions vote against some part or all parts of the availability of alcohol, they were not voting for the Movement.

This category is of major importance for an understanding of the social setting in which education is to occur, for understanding the message to be communicated, and for understanding the purpose ascribed to the activity. I am uncomfortably aware that many to whom I am communicating will feel that I am mounting a great attack on the Drys. I can only assert that I am attempting to do something very different. I don't think there are too many Drys of the classic type still existing who exert much influence. My target is this third category as it exists today. It so happens that this group, perhaps unconsciously, is the chief inheritor of the old Movement, more significantly so than the newly emerging temperance groups. It is this large and influential category which is important for educational activity today. But to understand this group it is essential to understand their attitudes and feelings. Their attitudes and feelings, as I see the situation, stemmed directly from the Classical Temperance Movement and from reactions to that Movement.

First, it is important to note that although there are three positions, there is only one philosophy. Both the so-called Wets and also those here described as unaligned largely accepted the major positions of the Classical Temperance Movement; in one instance they denied those positions and in the other instance they tried to avoid those positions, but the Classic Temperance Movement was the only available guide and only available target, so to speak, for thinking and feeling.

For almost 100 years this was the only position; it was a monolithic, multi-concerned, and jealously protected position. If there were physiologic questions, the Movement provided physiologists, systems of physiologic explanation and the necessary means for dissemination of that sort of understanding and knowledge. If there were theologic questions, the Movement provided theologians, church structures, and the means for dissemination. If there were legal or political questions, the Movement provided the leaders, the specialists, the answers, the structures and the dissemination. And, of course, in education the Movement provided the message, the teachers, the teaching materials, the educational policy, and also the motivated lay groups to vitalize and expand the educational program and to keep it in touch with the appropriate science, information, religion and law. If there were alcohol related sicknesses, the Movement provided the philosophy, the workers, the hospitals or other facilities. Likewise for problems and questions dealing with automobile accidents and alcohol, alcohol and indians, alcohol and youth in military service, and so on.

It did all this with sincerity, fervent motivation and magnificent organization, the latter ranging from the smallest hamlet to state capitols to Washington, D.C. and on through international machinery to the world. It worked with tiny tots, with millionaires, with recovered drunks, with politicians, with all professions, with housewives, with newspapers and on and on.

And it was a jealous and super-sensitive movement. It could brook no disagreement. Opposition, of course, was a different matter. In fact, the classic Drys had a deep need for both drunkards and also for Wets. What it could not tolerate was competition. There could not be a science or a medicine or a legal philosophy or a theology or an education or a reform movement of any sort which was concerned with alcohol or problems of alcohol unless it agreed with the Movement. Whether planned or not, this posture was activated with great success. If there were individuals or small groups who had ideas or programs which did not accept the Movement's basic tenets, they experienced short, unhappy, and fruitless careers in the alcohol field. They were forcefully attacked by the Movement. To add to this short, unhappy and fruitless life, such innovative persons and groups were also attacked by the Wets: members of that small but highly motivated group had fully accepted the Movement's position and definition at least to the extent that they felt that anybody concerned with alcohol problems must hate them, the Wets.

But the most awful blow felt by such innovators was from the unaligned groups and persons. What seems to have happened was something like this: to some extent by 1900 and by 1925 to a very large extent, the Movement had become rigid, massively powerful, and apparently quite unresponsive to almost all major changes going on in our society. Furthermore, the strongest possible emotions were constantly being elicited whenever the subject of alcohol use was discussed. Love, hate, social status, religious conflict, property interests, ethnic rivalry, political warfare, personal and group morality, and the like were almost automatically triggered into action when any aspect of alcohol use, even the most ephemerally related matters, were discussed. And the full force of attack or of defense was brought into play on even the most minor confrontation. One increasingly popular reaction to this emotional violence was retreat, escape and avoidance. A special pathway of avoidance, which allowed the avoider some ego-satisfaction, was the response of ridicule, jokes, and negative stereotyping, happily directed against drunks, drys, bootleggers or any other alcohol subject, including alcohol use itself. As various institutions and groups were developing 20th century philosophies, modes of organization, training of new members, material devices, types of procedure, service and dissemination of information in whatever their area of action might be, they sharply cut themselves off, in theory and in practice, from anything to do with the field of alcohol problems. Scientists, unless associated with the Movement, did not study; and, if associated with the Movement, their studies in this field seemed noticeably less scientific. Physicians avoided the area as did their training schools. Hospitals refused admittance. Social work and welfare agencies avoided such clients. Personnel officers in industry were blind to such problems. But this avoidance reaction went far beyond such named institutions. Ordinary individuals and families did not wish to recognize these problems, did not wish to be labeled Wets or Drys or, in fact, to be considered as having anything to do with the matter.

But there were massive, intensive and extensive, problems. Either the least powerful groups were forced to undertake some responsibility, e.g. policemen and workhouses, or representatives of the Movement took over, whether in missions, in special church groups where the majority of the denominational membership wished to avoid the matter, or in formal education. And as the institution or group was larger, busier, more rapidly growing, the more it wanted to avoid this distasteful field. The private foundations, the major governmental departments, the armed forces, they all wanted "out." The result, of course, was that change in thinking, procedure, organization, training, information, feeling, tone, service and the like was beautifully blocked. The field became, so to speak, archaic.

In education you all know what happened. The subject matter was isolated. The Movement had legislation commanding education on alcohol and so, if it was not possible to forget the legislative command, representatives of the Movement came in as communicators or the professional teachers gave out some version of the Movement's always available communications. The teachers and their administrative superiors, unless devotees of the Movement, had as a major motivation, the avoidance of trouble (unless they were in a community dominated by the Movement). The message they had to communicate was perfectly clear: Don't Drink. The administrators and teachers probably sensed that many of the students did drink and that most of their parents did likewise and two/thirds or so of the students soon would drink even if they didn't do so at age 15 or 17. Furthermore, they sensed that the parents and various leaders of the community would for obvious reasons punish them if they said that drinkers and drinking were evil and also sensed that the same categories would punish them if they said that drinkers and drinking was good. These, of course, were the only two positions available--this dualistic thinking was part of the bequest of the monolithic Movement. The purpose of the educational actors was probably best expressed in terms of various types of avoidance: first, avoid the whole matter if possible; second, delegate whatever has to be done to someone else, not professional educators; third, if one has to do something one's self, then adopt the Movement's philosophy insofar as teen agers are concerned--that is, teach the philosophy of Don't Drink but restrict its application to students. But above all, if one has to act, get it over and done with. And this philosophy fitted the social setting pretty well.

Two things upset this particular form of avoidance. One of them was the increasing sophistication and professionalization of the educational world. This resulted in growing recognition of the archaic character of the Movement's message. In some ways the officers of the Movement realized this and tried, sometimes quite effectively, to modernize the appearance of the old message. However, the message was of such an archaic vintage that it didn't really suit the new bottles at all. The other trouble was that alcohol "problems" (whatever that may mean) were at least as severe and extensive as they ever had been and were in addition far more noticeable, if, for no other reason, because changes were occurring in almost all the other massive problem fields leaving this category ever more obvious.

Please note the quite different purposes of the educational process as incorporated by the Movement and as incorporated by many school systems. The message remains as "Don't Drink." Its effect has probably never been measured. In terms of the manifest purpose, the effect has probably been limited to reinforcing the abstinence commitment of those already committed to abstinence primarily through non school channels. Other effects may have exacerbated confusion, guilt feelings, feelings of the naughtiness-character of drinking, avoidance feelings and actions, ridiculing responses, but they may have had little effect of any sort. I don't believe anyone knows and surely this is the sort of knowledge which almost all would like to avoid.

But there are some thrashings around, some variations and criticisms in the educational field. I will mention some of them. Most obvious perhaps is the assertion that there are very real problems, that the only serious long term answer will be through education and that the schools should play an active, leading role and should start right now. Don't think for a moment that this is a call coming from illiterates, villains, people of no influence and fools. Quite to the contrary. And this is a very natural position. Remember, there is one philosophy, one set of goals, and one tradition. If you ask such persons the specific questions--what message do you wish the educator to communicate, how will this message fit with the social setting and so on--they may look at you as if you were off your head. Nor do they wish to pursue any such discussions.

A second approach is to pursue avoidance on a very sophisticated level in terms of educational problems, e.g. (1) the Schools have such enormous problems in other areas, (2) the Schools are asked to teach special subject matter by every known pressure group, (3) there is a philosophical question about teaching morality in the Schools which hasn't been resolved and until it is resolved, why take the most moralistic of all questions and create more havoc than ever, (4) isn't this a family-church-community problem which those groups are trying to foist off on the schools and so on. If stated with sufficient tact, conviction, and appropriate symbols, this approach is quite successful in achieving avoidance. Obviously, it has and could have no other successful outcome.

Another set of answers has proven more satisfying to some professional educators. Some excellent, modern, well organized materials are presented in whatever is the currently approved method of communication--discussion groups, films, experiments, lectures, etc.--on the metabolism, physiology, biochemistry or biology of alcohol. The educational rationale is splendid. And this subject matter clearly is related to the subject of alcohol and its use. Similarly, an exposition of the nature of gasoline has a relationship to driving a car and the nature of cat guts has a relationship to playing tennis. What we have, of course, is a really sophisticated avoidance of the problems, dressed up with science and pedagogy of the most modern type. And everybody has gotten off the hook.

Another ploy of the same character is to have students learn all about the state law which deals with the availability of alcohol. Only if the students are sufficiently naive to believe that availability is equated with problems can this do any harm. Ordinarily those students coming from families favoring the Classic Movement believe this fallacy anyway and the others are probably not harmed particularly. It is doubtful that the teachers will point out the irrelevancy of these laws to any primary alcohol problems.

Another very popular ploy in some circles in the last 10 to 15 years is to give educational effort to the subject of alcoholism. Again, driver-training courses may give tables showing the possible effects of various concentrations of alcohol on eye movements or muscular dexterity. All of these variations either avoid the major subject with real efficiency, or whether consciously or unconsciously, are used as a vehicle for communicating the message of the classic movement.

Then there are the more strictly pedagogical administration questions: should one teach this material (never quite defining what it is) in one course or several courses, at the 6th, 9th, or 11th grade levels, with specially trained teachers or not, and so on?

More recently, whether seriously, partly seriously, or with tongue-in-cheek I don't know, the position has been raised that all children should be taught how to drink and that the Schools should play a leading role in this endeavor. I can think of various ways of avoidance of the whole which are considerably less sophisticated. It is perhaps indicative of the current situation of flux that so much publicity was given this idea: the range of talking, so to speak, is more flexible than 20 or 30 years ago.

What is the message which I am attempting to communicate to this group? It is a sort of socio-historical introduction to the subject of education and alcohol. It attempts to indicate the influence, perhaps I should say for this decade the crucial influence, of the nature of beliefs, of attitudes, of traditional ways of behaving vis a vis alcohol, its use, alleged problems, and modes of reaction to such problems.

I am stating that this area is to be defined in a highly particularistic way, following upon a unique history. I am stating that this unique, particularistic development has had direct effects on our definitions of the subject matter, on our purposes, and on our methods of communication.

I am stating that the rigidity, narrowness, isolation, emotionality, jealous hostility and enormous power of the Classical American Temperance Movement even 30 years after its organizational decline is still largely determining the scope, emotionality and nature of our rather disorganized and easily distracted attempts to rationalize an educational response to this obviously significant aspect of individual and social life.

I do not suggest that there are easy answers. I am strongly calling for an analytic view on every proposal in terms of the question "is this proposal basically or in large part a newly dressed-up technique for following one of the three old pathways, i.e. the old Temperance position, denial of that position, or avoidance of the whole"?

As a social scientist I will have to reject the adequacy, the applicability, the reality, the usefulness, even the minimal viability of the philosophic position offered by the Classical Temperance Movement for our current world. I can sympathize with its motivation and I can admire its extraordinary history as a social movement, but that position, at least as I described it, is just not sufficient and in many ways creates more problems than it resolves. Its fundamental message, Don't Drink, is obviously out of place in a drinking society. Its monolithic, single-minded, emotional and negativistic characteristics are out of place in a pluralistic, professional and change-minded society. Its over-simplification of the relevant phenomena, of the problems, of answers and, of evaluations, its personalization and argumentative approach, all these are strikingly out of place in America in mid-20th Century. And just exactly these same criticisms apply with the same strength to the two major off-shoots of that Movement, namely, the Classical Wets and the Unaligned Avoiders.

Today, there is emerging, I believe, a new temperance movement. I think I see very real changes, positive changes, in that development. The Classical Wets, primarily the alcohol beverage industries, also manifest changes in some ways in some areas. It may well be that the largest group, the "avoiding non-aligned," are in fact more influenced by that old movement than either of the others.

If we are to make progress out of that old sterile battleground and its rigid patterns of thinking and emoting, whether in education, legislation, health, or other area, our first step may well have to be a definition of what it is we are exercized about, what our purpose in education may be, to whom are we directing our message, how does it fit with the relevant social setting, why we choose this or that type of communicator, and finally how are we going to measure the effects of whatever we try to do. After we have one or more viable statements on these levels, then it will be practicable to talk about methods and timing and structuring and orientation and style of the educational process.

I will conclude on an optimistic note. I think that positions other than that of the Classical Movement are available. I think that goals other than that one goal of the Classical Movement, goals on which workable consensus can be achieved, are available. I think that formal education has a useful role to play compatible with those goals and also compatible with goals of professional educators. I am happy to report my opinion that the classic Wet movement and the classic Dry movement are no longer monolithic power blocks stifling all change and all effective action. Contrary to much opinion I think that we, the chief unconscious inheritors of their old struggle, we the one-time unaligned, we, the great avoiders, are the groups who need to change our hostile emoting and our stereotyped thinking. This won't happen all at once. We were indoctrinated too well for that. But we can make progress toward that change. As we do, the educational function and the educational problems may well be seen in quite different terms and quite different proportions.

I think we would then be able to state far more clearly just what the communication is or what the communications are which we wish to extend. We will no longer lump together all drinkers or all abstainers or consider the targets of our communication as one undifferentiated mass; either at the time of teaching or in terms of long range purpose. We would be able, if we really got rid of the doctrinaire and logically quite indefensible assertions of the Classic Movement about drinking, to integrate our educational effort into a relevant and more realistically perceived social setting. If we could excise that all-dominating imperative "Don't Drive" from the center of educational planning, we could perhaps at long last begin to discuss the purposes of any communication in this field and then consider what purposes are appropriate for the formal educational system. With this much change towards reality it would be possible to discuss in more rational terms the matter of who should do the communicating. At that time it would become reasonable to talk about educational techniques, and the validity of new theories and even raise questions about the effects of whatever policy or program might be undertaken.

My introduction of the subject to this conference is almost entirely in terms of alcohol use and related attitudes, feelings, and traditional channels of thinking and behaving in our society when this matter arises. I feel that discussions of planning about education (or, for that matter, about research or law enforcement or rehabilitation) when they concern the phenomena of alcohol and its use have to recognize this unique, even rather extraordinary background. Otherwise we are likely to spend our time in fighting, avoiding, and continuing the Alice-in-Wonderland world which is so characteristic of American reactions to their worries about alcohol. I see signs of the newly emerging temperance groups moving out of that world. I see some signs of the beverage industries coming out of that old battlefield. I hope that the rest of us who are concerned, we who are the chief inheritors of the bequest of the Classic Movement, can not only also move out from that old domain but can take leadership in the development of more realistic, mature, and constructive ways for adjusting to individual and social drinking and individual and social abstinence in our society. It will not be easy or quick, but it seems clear that a real start can be made.

## IMPLICATIONS FROM RESEARCH ON ADOLESCENT DRINKING

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Somewhat over 1 1/2 years ago, data was collected from about 8,000 boys and girls attending junior and senior high schools in three Metropolitan Boston communities. About a month ago, a first draft of a 500-page manuscript was completed. It concerned itself only with the boys. It is to this data that I will speak today.

In the 10 minutes available to me, a data summary would be impossible. Instead I will focus on some of the implications of the findings which in many cases, where data overlaps, are consistent with other research on teenage drinking.

## Drinking is a Social Act

Drinking is a custom, a social act and a practice. It also has some effects which must be understood in its chemical composition and physiological and metabolic action. However, it is its social component which offers promise. As such, it should be subject to social engineering.

The drinking behavior of the subjects is closely related to certain fundamental social institutions: the family, peer groups, religion, nationality, economic, and recreation. It is seldom idiosyncratic. It reflects group practices. It is seldom excessive.

In a modern, complex, urban, pluralistic society, multiple group affiliations are possible. Segmental involvement offers the possibility of alternative, even opposing, drinking values. This is both an advantage and disadvantage.

Since the disadvantage of alternative models are so often cited, I would like to suggest some advantages first. Our data strongly supports the contention that when alternative drinking models are posed only in extremes, abstinence or excessive use, a drinking complication is more likely than in families where additional drinking models are offered. The proportion of excessive drinking sons, among those who drink, is higher among boys who come from the former environment. Yet a substantial majority do drink and without manifest excesses. Multiple group affiliations and mass media may play a positive role. An abstaining father may describe in detail the hazards of alcohol to his son. However, his son will also be exposed, despite his father's protection, to more normative drinking models. Compensation is possible. These more stable models may in fact come from other family members, peer, religious or other significant group.

Merton described three types of reference groups.--normative, comparison and interaction. A normative group would establish and maintain standards for the actor. The comparison type would offer a frame of reference against which the actor may evaluate himself and others. The interaction groups are those which are part of the social environment. They may be taken into account by the actor as he works toward his purpose but they are not of normative or comparitive significance.[1] Normative and comparison types may be the same group, may be different and for a strongly mobile person may be reversed.

A recognition that differential opportunity is normally available in a pluralistic society can be viewed as potentially advantageous. It may be seen as an opportunity for the development of primary preventive mechanisms in which idealized but operative standards are made available to those who lack such models.

Having supported a position often ignored in the alcohol literature, a basic finding should be reinforced. When sanctions around alcohol are ambivalent, contradictory, ambiguous or offer only abstinence or abnormal drinking as models, excessive drinking is more frequent. When unrealistic demands pose a fundamental dilemma for the actor, he may be forced into violation of some sanction no matter which choice he makes.

## The High-Risk Family

A number of studies have demonstrated that a small group of families produce a high incidence of a variety of problems. Although these studies typically are focused on crime, delinquency and the socially maladjusted, the perspective can be used to look at our subjects as well. A small group of subjects seem to be significantly involved in excessive drinking, crime and delinquency, automobile accidents, aggressive behavior, sexual freedom and generally rebellious acts. Most subjects, however, seem to work extraordinarily hard at their social and academic assignments, submitting reasonably well to the limits placed upon them by adults and peers.

Cohen speaks to this general finding. "Contrary to popular images of adolescence, these students are not rebellious. However strenuous or meaningless or depressing they find the discipline of the schools, they submit to that discipline because submission is eventually rewarded by comfortable niches in modern bureaucratic organizations. Accustomed to discipline and submission as adolescents, they become cautious, conservative, compliant, accommodating, and security-conscious adults."[2]

## Teenagers Drink Moderately

A significant finding, which needs reinforcement, is that the vast majority of our subjects use beverage alcohol in a moderate and controlled way. The daily drinker, frequent episodes of excessive use and personal complications in conjunction with alcohol use are rare. Although we have paid particular interest to this small group because of our interest in prevention, it should not interfere with our basic finding - moderate drinking is the norm for our male adolescents.

These adolescent moderate drinkers were introduced to alcohol by their parents in their own homes. The beverage was likely beer or wine and the amount less than one glass. The incident took place by age 11 for one-half of the subjects and in a majority of the cases the subject asked his parents for the alcohol.

At this stage it was not motivated by a premature desire to play adult roles, but essentially was a function of curiosity. The parent was drinking, the son wanted to taste the drink. It was not a function of age. Tension was not likely to develop. It was merely an expression of interest in an expanding environment.

Drinking did not appear to be pivotal. Alcohol was not viewed as some magic potion designed to meet all of life's problems.

"Good" and "Bad" Kids

In the 1962 summary to the Report to the Joint Commission on Alcohol Beverages Control of the New York State Legislature, a significant commentary on "goodness" takes place. Although our data differs in part, their comments are worth paraphrasing.[3]

Popular opinion appears to hold to the belief that "good kids" abstain from beverage alcohol and "bad kids" drink. If "good kids" are to be measured by such criteria as popularity (frequent dates), and the virtues of hard work after school, then our "good kids" drink more excessively than "bad kids." If on the other hand "good kids" are those who make good marks in school, belong to formal school organizations and attend church weekly, they are more likely to be abstainers or moderate drinkers. Of course, this is complicated by the fact that the "A" students are more likely to drink excessively than "B" and "C" students.

If the measure of badness is antisocial behavior, drinkers are indeed bad. However, when age is controlled, most of the difference is not between drinkers or abstainers, but between excessive drinkers and all others. Equally important, the excessive alcohol users get into these scrapes more often when cold sober than when they are drinking.

The cause and effect relationship will have to be challenged, notwithstanding popular stereotypes. Alcohol is not the cause of deviant behavior. The adolescent who misbehaves frequently also manages to drink frequently. They are co-related, not casual. Drinking excessively is merely another alternative form of antisocial behavior. Without alcohol, the scrapes would continue. In certain cases, for example, the deviant use of the automobile, with perhaps less social harm.

Rites of Passage

One clear finding from our data is that some of the young male subjects have rejected certain adult notions about the appropriate adolescent role. In many societies the transition from the dependent child to adolescence or mature autonomous adulthood is clearly marked by public or private ceremonies well understood by the community.

In America, in addition to physiological puberty, which can occur as early as age nine for some girls and as late as age 15 for some boys and girls, there are a series of social transitional rites. The "coming out party," junior and high school graduation, college graduation, the automobile driver's license, marriage, full-time jobs, the draft and voting are all phenomena which imply certain phrases of maturation. Unfortunately they lack any clear structure, varying by sex, age, social class, ethnic group and region, among others.

There is no clear definitive marking of adult status. Rites of passage are manifold and confusing. The resulting strain is evidenced by the conflict in drinking practices by American teenagers and the laws, rules and regulations established by government.

An analogous view of transitional complexities can be seen in the social and personal difficulties arising from the gradual or rapid alterations in group identity suffered by the immigrant in his attempt to assimilate the values and standards of native Americans.

Our "good" teenagers wait, our "bad" teenagers assume adult roles early. But even those adolescents playing adult roles are proscribed from many adult activities. They often play their adult roles with their peers. They remove themselves from organized groups sanctioned by adults. They receive poor academic grades in school. They work after school to earn their own spending money. They date often and go steady. They pet. They engage in a variety of antisocial acts. They drive to endanger. They drink with their peers. They challenge their exclusion from adulthood.

Sociologically they are seldom prepared for these adult roles. Their formal education seldom relates to adult tasks. They are trained from adulthood by exclusion from adulthood.

"...youth culture has a strong tendency to develop in directions which are either on the borderline of parental approval or beyond the pale, in such matters as sex behavior, drinking, and various forms of frivolous and irresponsible behavior. The fact that adults have attitudes toward these things which are often deeply ambivalent and that on such occasions as college reunions they may outdo the younger generation in drinking, for instance, is of great significance, but probably structurally secondary to the youth-versus-adult differential aspect. Thus the youth culture is not only, as is true of the curricular aspect of formal education, a matter of age status as such, but also shows strong signs of being a product of tensions in the relationship of young people and adults."[4]

In our culture adolescence is that process by which a child becomes an adult. Unfortunately it is often viewed in simplistic biological terms. It is not. Most of the implied differences are social artifacts invented by man. The actual function of the adolescent process is three fold: (1) to help the adolescent become emotionally mature, (2) to provide him with certain intellectual trappings, and (3) to provide him with certain technical skills.

Young people do grow up and they need various means of testing their developing status. Some alcohol use appears to be an integral part of adult role playing. The increasing probability that the male adolescent will become an alcohol user as he grows through each adolescent age grade substantiates this premise.

The significant issue then becomes - how do we help these young people to assimilate practices which will be personally and socially constructive or at the least socially neutral?

### Mature or Premature Alcohol Role Commitments?

Perhaps what should be sought is a clear explanation of the difference between premature and normal alcohol use among children and adolescents. Premature alcohol use can be defined as drinking for impulse gratification needs so that personality development is affected adversely. Sub-cultures which equate maleness with uninhibited alcohol use can also be defined in negative terms.

Drinking for youngsters which enhances a strengthening of impulse control, which is integrative, which relates them to their family and moral standards may be considered a goal. A slow and gradual learning process is desirable.

Alternately, support must be offered those youngsters who want to wait or to not drink at all.

## ALCOHOL EDUCATION: CLUES FROM RESEARCH

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In an earlier paper[1] a review of research relating to alcohol education led me to a quite unambiguous conclusion. There has been very little research on who has been saying what about alcohol to whom, how, and with what effect. One does encounter occasional bits and pieces that describe who has been saying what to whom and how. But the kinds of critical evaluation which lead to generalizations about effective procedures for transmitting information about alcohol are strikingly absent. Many of the sources of this state of affairs are easily identifiable. Let me mention several of the more obvious ones which have come to my attention while searching for research on alcohol education. These initial comments may be construed as clues from research on why research on alcohol education is uncommon.

Historically a principal, if not the principal, roadblock to the development of effective instruction about alcohol has been the heavy and enervating emotional freight which any discussion of alcohol use bears in this society. When alcohol use by youth is involved the burden can be unbearable. Our cultural heritage still bears a strong imprint of a strategy of living which values work, is deeply suspicious of fun, and is preoccupied with impulse control. That is, a considerable residue of a "Protestant Ethic" orientation to life remains. This heritage is clearly not shared universally or uniformly. In the private lives of many, this ascetic orientation may be largely a memory rather than an effective orientation around which life is organized. But in the public sector where public policy is debated, one still finds considerable evidence that many Americans are uneasy about alcohol, particularly when they are discussing alcohol use by the young. A good illustration of the sources of ambiguity and ambivalence in our tradition about drinking are found in two books published just this past year, one by J.C. Furnas entitled The Life and Times of the Late Demon Rum and the other by Morris Chafetz entitled Liquor: The Servant of Man. Furnas documents the simultaneous American passions for liquor and prohibition. And it was Dr. Chafetz, you may recall, who with partial accuracy was quoted in the press as advocating the teaching of drinking in public schools. I emphasize "partial accuracy" to make clear that Dr. Chafetz was not advocating the development of drinking laboratories in our school. Rather he was emphasizing his own acceptance of drinking as a normal part of life for most individuals and, therefore, advocating that drinking should be treated as something to be learned well, if at all.

The demonstrated inability or unwillingness of many citizens to think soberly about alcohol use among the young and to discuss unemotionally ways in which problems associated with the use can be minimized has consequences. The most obvious consequences is an inability to identify with any reasonable degree of certainty the preferred state of affairs with regard to alcohol use among youth. For example, is the preferred state of affairs total and permanent abstinence? Or would we settle for total and permanent abstinence among youth with the admission of legitimacy of free choice among youth approaching adulthood? Or, recognizing the legitimacy of abstinence for many would we settle for the development of those patterns of use among youth who drink which result in the least problems? Typically the inability to get widespread agreement on what the ultimate objectives of instruction about alcohol ought to be has led to a kind of immobilization where, by default, nothing at all is done and evaluation of what is done is impossible. How can one know if he is arriving if he does not know where he is going? As a matter of fact, one sometimes gets the impression that we need to ask: Who wants anything to be done differently with regard to training youth about alcohol? And, what do they want?

A second source of difficulty lies in the fact that alcohol education has usually implied something more than the transmission of information. That is, instruction about alcohol has usually implied not only a specification of preferred attitudes and behavior but also an effort to mold student attitudes and behavior to conform with these preferences. In the attempt to affect attitudes and behavior, evaluation of instruction about alcohol presents common problems associated with the evaluation of any educational venture that goes beyond asking questions about the acquisition and retention of information. The moment one asks about something more complex than the quality point index of students exposed to some instructional venture and inquires about their successful performance as professional people or as individuals, there is trouble.

Evaluation of educational enterprises are never easy for at least two reasons. First, an adequate evaluation procedure would have to be longitudinal, would have to cover attitudes and behavior not only at the point of departure from the educational system but also at subsequent points in time. The second problem of educational evaluation follows from the first. Few educational enterprises are in a position to provide adequate control of the exposure of the research population to consequential variables outside the educational system and not under its control. How then does one go about determining the effects of any given educational procedure or innovation? While I will not presume to answer my own question, I do not assume that the educational research of the broad kind under discussion here is impossible. I only know that it is quite difficult. And I am absolutely certain that if one is seriously concerned about evaluating programs of instruction about alcohol, he must be willing to make a substantial personal commitment to such research and have available substantial resources. Interested investigators and adequate resources have not yet discovered one another.

A third source of difficulty lies in the organization of public education in this country. Without meaning to be pejorative, I have the impression that public school men and women for very good reasons, voluntarily do very little pioneering on the frontier of social change. The task of the public schools achieving the more conventional objectives of education is, after all, a full time responsibility. The prospect of attacking social problems seriously clouded by community dissensus could hardly be a task eagerly sought by many school superintendents or teachers. Yet public schools are continually faced with many special pleaders, educational and otherwise. Some challenges are accepted and pursued successfully. But, in such cases there is almost always an administrative price to pay, usually in the form of changed certification requirements, the specialization of teachers, and new demands on crowded curricula. The prospect that accepting the challenge of alcohol education means another kind of specialization, perhaps another kind of certification, and surely another demand on the curriculum must be among the concerns of any school superintendent. Inevitably every school system faced with such a challenge would have to evaluate the place of instruction about alcohol in the hierarchy of educational needs confronting the community. It seems clear to me that, in the face of curriculum problems, certification problems, and personnel problems associated with specialized educational ventures, instruction about alcohol is not very high on the list of things that obviously need to be done, whatever you and I may think about.

So much then for background about why we do not know more about effective instruction about alcohol than we do. Let me now turn to some clues which come from research about the kinds of things which might be done. In effect, I want to play a game called "What would you do if a school or a community system were at your disposal and you had the responsibility of developing a program of instruction about alcohol?" My proposals are modest.

### Communities, not Schools

First, it is not at all apparent to me that the instruction about alcohol should be even predominantly, much less exclusively, in public schools. It is obvious to me that the public schools should be involved in any program of alcohol education, they might even be the logical source of leadership and coordination. But research indicates to me that the logical focus of instruction about alcohol ought to be on a community which a public school serves. Instruction about alcohol comes from many sources in the community--from the home, from peers, from churches, from youth organization, and a wide-range of professional people, and from the mass media, as well as from school. In face part of the problem in providing instruction about alcohol in any community is the high probability that the multiple sources of information to which a person is exposed will be contradictory, or at least not obviously complementary. An effective program of instruction about alcohol would be directed to parents and professionals as well

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as to captive audiences of students. Students are not, by definition, necessarily the most poorly informed segment of a community in regard to drinking. The recognition that there are multiple targets for instruction about alcohol in a community each with different presuppositions and each with different needs is important. As a matter of strategy and economy, one might very well recognize an inability to attack all the relevant target audiences he could identify in a community. Yet, my own preference is clearly for attacking simultaneously as many target populations as possible.

### The Diversity of Youth

Youth, like communities, resist stereotyping. For purposes of instruction about alcohol, youth present target audiences, not a target audience. For example, if one faced a class of 30 or so young people in a public junior high or high school, the assumption that a single simple garden variety of educational experience about alcohol is sufficient would clearly be naive. Some of the young people would surely have come from homes in which the use of alcohol is a normal part of living; if these young people are 14 or 15, they are very likely either to have already began some experimentation with alcohol, probably in the presence of adults, or to have every expectation of integrating alcohol use into their own behavior sooner or later. Others will have come from backgrounds which are consistently abstaining and have every intention of maintaining this abstinence into an through adulthood. Still another probable category of individuals, possibly the majority in most communities, represent the marginal individuals whose cultural heritage and social supports in regard to drinking are somewhat ambiguous. They are probably on their way to drinking; but how soon and how competently is uncertain. Finally, one or two young persons will already be in trouble with life and that trouble may well involve the use of alcohol in some complex fashion. Even these categorizations oversimplify the situation in the typical classroom. But an awareness of even this much complexity calls our attention to the limitations any garden variety of instruction about alcohol which can hardly be addressed with equal force to the particular needs and problems of such varied young people.

At a very minimum, an elemental distinction would have to be made between instruction about alcohol and instruction about alcoholism, or, from the standpoint of an individual, a distinction between education and therapy. The awareness of such variety in needs for information also raises fundamental questions about whether there is a common core of information about alcohol and alcoholism. Are these facts which are obviously relevant and useful for presentation in such a diversified classroom?

One does hear about such a common core of information. If one chooses to drink, that are surely some things any drinker should know. This was brought home to me in a conversation not too long ago with a young lady from Ohio who, in a discussion group, asked me, "Is it true that an individual's first drink is his first drink on the way to alcoholism?" I parried with "What do you think?", to which she replied "I have been told by a minister and a teacher that this is true." I responded, "So you have been told, but you have not answered my question. What do you think?" She replied, "But they should know". I, even more insistently, "But what do you think?" She replied, "I don't believe it is so." This exchange led me to inquire of this young lady what she knew about the use of alcohol. Very quickly it became apparent that she knew very little about different alcoholic beverages, had very little lore about styles of drinking that are relatively safer than others, and in sum proved to be a generally naive young lady with regard to alcohol. It struck me quite forcefully at the time that here was a clear case of an individual who needed some information she did not have, whatever one assumed or hoped about her future behavior. In the same sense, I would contend that every citizen needs to know something about alcoholism and community resources for dealing with alcoholics and problem drinkers whatever we assume or know about his personal use or avoidance of alcohol.

### Programmed Instruction

The assumption that a core of relevant information about alcohol and alcoholism, however poorly defined at the moment, can be identified, led me to suggest some years ago that attention ought to be given to programmed instruction about these subjects. I originally made this suggestion somewhat with tongue in cheek, believing that such an undertaking would prove to be provocative and stressful but definitely worthwhile. Such an undertaking, for example, would require that knowledgeable people come to some agreement about what the common core of information ought to be. The development of a program in turn would introduce various kinds of research possibilities in regard to the transmission of information and an exploration of the relationship between the acquisition of information and an exploration of the development and modification of attitudinal and behavior patterns. More than this, programmed instruction becomes common in many schools, such a procedure has the obvious advantage of making minimal demand on existing resources within a school system.

### Using Existing Communication Networks

Conventional methods of instruction about alcohol, especially in public schools, necessitates complex and administrative decisions about the allocation of resources and occasions arguments about timing, integration, personnel, and community sentiment. Such arguments direct attention away from one of the powerful known mechanisms in the transmission of information designed to modify attitudes and behavior; this is the interpersonal network of peers. It has often occurred to me that the first move of an alcohol educator in any community, in any school, ought to be the identification of community network and communication leaders among various target groups he wished to address. I have in mind the identification of opinion leaders among parents, among professionals, among teachers, and among young people with the intention of focusing educational efforts on them. The theoretical justification of such a procedure is clearcut. The practical justification seems equally obvious to me. Panel research on the capacity of alcohol educators to influence peer group influentials and the effectiveness of these influentials, in turn, to convey information and effect attitude and behavior change on their peers is eminently researchable.

## Summary

Clues from research suggest to me that instruction about alcohol 1) should be oriented to a community rather than exclusively to public schools; 2) should recognize multiple targets; 3) should be based on a common core of information about alcohol and alcoholism; and 4) should utilize existing communication networks for the transmission of this information.

I continue to be impressed about the incongruity of how much we talk about alcohol education in relation to the small allocation of time, personnel, and resources devoted to its development in a systematic fashion. Out of respect for many people who devoted many years to improving instruction in this area, I want to emphasize that a great deal has been done with minimum resources. The time has come to assess whether we really want to do something more than is already being done. The need is clear to me. The desire to act is not.

# SOME CLUES FROM RESEARCH

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The Center of Alcohol Studies for many years has been engaged in research on and evaluation of alcohol education. Staff members, particularly the late Raymond McCarthy, have contributed books and pamphlets and has edited collections in this field. Further, the Documentation and Publications Section of the Center has published a number of books, pamphlets and articles in this same area. And, of course, for many years the Bulletin of the Association for the Advancement of Instruction about Alcohol and Narcotics (AAIAN) was edited and published at the Center.

Partly as a result of these activities and partly as a result of studies in the social sciences and experimental psychology, the Center developed a research program which would provide methods of measuring, recording, and evaluating change in a community, whether that change be the result of planning or the result of happenstance.

Essentially, this research program consists of a number of closely related projects to be carried out in a ten to fifteen year period in an eastern seaboard community of approximately 20,000 inhabitants. The community is relatively self-contained as an economic unit, and relatively independent of other communities in that it has, among other facilities, its own newspaper and radio station. Nor is it a bedroom suburb of New York, though a few of its residents do commute to the City. Another consideration was of great importance in selecting the community. The population had to include a sufficient diversity of ethnic and social class groups to provide a range of responses to drinking and non-drinking behavior as well as to various forms of intervention.

The research plan called for background studies of the community describing the economy, the history, the religious institutions, the demography, the courts and police, the helping agencies, and groups--in general, the major social characteristics of the community. These studies were carried out in the summer of 1963, supported in part by the National Institute of Mental Health[1] and in part by the New Jersey State Department of Health.[2] In the following eighteen months members of approximately 5% of the households in the community were interviewed to develop a base line statement on drinking behavior and attitudes. Also, a theoretical problem related to the development of sanctions--both positive and negative--using alcoholic beverages as one of the foci was a major part of the study. Parenthetically, perhaps the most important emphasis that the Center places on research conducted under its auspices is that the work have theoretical value in a traditional discipline. Alcohol is a vehicle, not an end product in Center research. This study was also supported by NIMH and by a general support grant from the United States Brewers Association.

At about the same time as the second phase of the program got underway, planning of the current phase began. This is a study of teen-age behavior vis-a-vis alcoholic beverages. This study is being conducted in three stages. The first stage is description of relations of teen-agers to alcoholic beverages and serves, as well, as a pretest of the protocols to be used in the second more intensive stage. It is out of this first stage that the clues come which I will discuss shortly. The second stage is a study involving intensive interviewing, diary keeping and participant observation of a selected sample of juniors and seniors in high school. (It is proposed to include some school drop-outs of the same age. However, the sampling problems involved in obtaining adequate representation of school drop-outs may preclude their inclusion in the study.)

The purpose, in this second stage, is to study the activities of teen-agers particularly in relation to alcoholic beverages. The theoretical basis for the study concerns the validity of a psychological scale in prediction of drinking behavior, particularly as applied to teen-age behavior. The third stage, to be undertaken about a year from now will explore the attitudes and understandings of parents, teachers, educational administrators, and other appropriate figures in the power structure of a community as to what they believe to be problems of teen-age drinking and what these authority figures believe to be feasible and appropriate controls or solutions to the problems which they perceive.

What are some of the clues? There is a tradition among many people, though perhaps not so well developed in the U.S., in which the consumption of alcoholic beverages is an integral part of other social activities. In other words, in some social activities elsewhere, and perhaps increasingly so in the U.S., drinking occurs most frequently as a concomitant of another activity. It is probably not going too far to suggest that people in cultures in which this is so, simply would be astounded if asked to regard drinking as a separate phenomenon. This kind of drinking involves celebration of a birthday, wedding, sometimes a wake, or some other occasion. Or, enhancing a social gathering, making talk more interesting and stimulating, interaction at dinner, drawing people closer together, or perhaps simply for relaxation. This is called affiliative[3] drinking. The main characteristic is that it increases social interaction rather than create that interaction.

Affiliative drinking is learned most likely at home and next most likely in company of peers or close associates. This kind of drinking has many associations, which add to the pleasure of the drinking. It is moderate drinking. Probably more than half the teen-agers who have had experience with alcohol, had that experience in an affiliative context--celebrating a special occasion with parents or peers, or participating in a religious ceremony.

Furthermore, even for teen-agers who have not learned drinking in an affiliative context, the wish to participate in affiliative activities and relations surely plays a significant role in taking the first drink. People do want to be liked by others. Few want to be left out of the activities of the group.

However, those who have not learned drinking in an affiliative context appear to be more likely to develop drinking problems. One reason seems to be that these people simply have not had an opportunity to observe others manage their drinking over a long period of time. As a result they do not appear to have learned drinking behavior which shields them from development of problems.

This second kind of drinking is called sentient drinking. This is drinking which arouses states of pleasurable bodily feeling, or which makes the person more assertive, less shy, more sexy, or more aggressive. The emphasis in drinking is on the generation of feelings and on the creation of states of mind which the drinker feels are not sufficiently present in the non-drinking state. Put another way, the personal psychological effect comes first. The social effect is secondary.

It is probably not going too far to suggest that when sentient drinking is operative, it is the way one feels about the drinking which is important. Sentient drinking for the adolescent, or for that matter for the adult, is an effort to provide for himself something which he has not found in other activities. In this sense, then, sentient drinking may be viewed as a response to perceived lacks (real or not) in our way of life and in our social organization.

Drinking problems, as behavior problems for the community (i.e., as social problems), are more likely to develop when drinking is done for sentient reasons than for affiliative reasons. When one ingests a substance to create a personal effect, the person tends to be withdrawn from his fellows, and, hence, less susceptible to social control. What people say, their criticisms and their efforts to calm the person have less effect on the drinker when he is experiencing the personal psychological effects of alcohol as well as the physiological effects. Consequently, impulsive behaviors, particularly those which are socially disapproved are more likely to occur under these circumstances.

However, simply identifying sentient drinkers does not in itself supply sufficient clues. Sentient drinking certainly tends to induce states of feeling that are likely to lead to impulsive behavior. Another effect of alcohol, the reduction of restraints, would reinforce the tendency toward impulsive behavior. On the other hand, most people have a long experience of being punished for anti-social or directly impulsive oriented activity. Therefore, while drinking may tend to induce thoughts of impulsive behavior, this tendency may well be counterbalanced by memory of restraints. This suggests that for most teen-agers, even those who drink for sentient reasons, considerable restraint is present in most situations. This is of particular importance when we recall that adolescence is the time when the individual is developing ways to express and channel his feelings in a manner that fits adult behavior patterns.

However, there are some adolescents who do have problems with drinking. It is probably a mistake to consider them to all of a kind. Some have problems of alcohol alone. Because they drink too much, they miss ordinary commitments resulting in difficulties with family, peers and others. Alcohol is directly related to their problems. While in the early stages of drinking the person may have a little more contact with other people and talk is a little easier, this may well be followed, in later stages of drinking, by impulsive activities resulting in accidents or criminal behavior. Yet for many youthful drinkers these problems are not patterned. There is no consistent appearance of problems. Rather, the problems seem to be almost incidental. Yet, though lacking pattern or regularity, problems do occur.

For such teen-agers, some solutions appear feasible. Provision of situations in which similar gratifications can be attained without the development of destructive processes appear most promising.

This may mean encouraging abstinence. But in this society abstinence may be difficult to attain and to practice. Perhaps more effective would be an effort to have drinking occur in situations or contexts in which strong social controls are present. A preliminary finding in the study which the Center is presently conducting shows that teen-agers tend to limit or control impulsive behavior when either peers or adults are present. In other words, teen-agers respond appropriately when social controls are present.

There is another group of drinking youth who present more serious problems. These people use alcohol simply to facilitate impulsive tendencies which they already possess. Alcohol serves to release antisocial tendencies which for these drinkers have a greater potential than others have. Such people represent a very small proportion of both drinkers and of teen-agers. For these teen-agers various forms of therapy (in rigorous sense of that word) appear to be the only feasible resources.

This discussion has been intended to indicate that reasons for drinking can be classified as affiliative or sentient. Affiliative drinking seems to present few if any problems. Sentient drinking, for the most part, poses no problems either. However, sentient drinking may well lead to serious problem drinking. On the basis of results from an on-going study, possible controls and help for serious problem drinking among teen-agers are suggested.

## LEARNING AND BEHAVIOR--ALCOHOL EDUCATION FOR WHAT?

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For thousands of years, starting long before recorded history, a man has found a variety of ways to escape from the drudgeries, pressures, boredom, and fears of every day life. The need to escape--in one form or another--is an inseparable part of human nature, and only its forms and means have changed from one culture to another, and from one era to another.

Drinking intoxicating liquids is but one of these forms, one that is, in itself, older than recorded history. The particular substances used, the means of preparing them, and the rituals surrounding their use, have varied over time. So have the social attitudes and norms which prescribe under what conditions, in what forms, and to what degree, this escape is socially approved or tolerated. But alcohol as a means to cope with a variety of problems has--with only a few exceptions--always and everywhere been one of the most favored and generally accepted means to escape. After all, it is a means that is relatively easily produced and hence can be made generally accessible to everyone, it is enjoyable to take and has usually some very pleasurable immediate effects on the drinker or, at least produces fairly quickly whatever the desired effects may be. But recognize that there are also less desirable and under certain condtions rather deleterious and even dangerous effects has provided the reason for many past and present attempts by individuals, organized groups, and official institutions to exert some control over the consumption of alcohol. Yet only in relatively recent years has the problem come under systematic and more or less scientific scrutiny in order to evolve effective ways for society to cope with it. But every today's search for means of effective control--especially through education--is handicapped by our heritage. Old views, attitudes, misconceptions, and prejudices still plague us, even though these may be clearly in conflict with our rapidly accumulating scientific knowledge about human behavior.

I would like to select from this body of knowledge a few pieces which are particularly relevant to the problem and examine some of their implications in the light of, and perhaps in contract with, today's most commmon practices. I shall focus almost exclusively on problems of the young since it goes without saying that these are and must be our primary target group.

Most of today's practices in alcohol education of the young are based on the popular notion that man is a rational being who regulates his life according to his best knowledge and understanding of facts. We all know that this is not altogether true, yet the notion persists in giving direction to educational programs in this area, both within and outside the school.

Man has in addition to reason, also desires and aspirations, uncertainties, worries and fears. He is subject to powerful, if often subtle social influences. He is beset with conflicting needs and motives. He is pulled one way or another by ever-changing social and environmental conditions. And he is constantly faced with ambiguous situations where he must act before he fully grasps what is at stake and without appreciating the possible consequences.

These internal and external influences determine only too often what we do or do not do; in fact, they may even determine our willingness and ability to gather knowledge, to accept or reject facts, in short--to learn. These influences are frequently in conflict with what our intellect tells us and are, moreover, often more powerful and decisive.

There is probably not one person in this room who has not, at one time or another, done things which he knew were bad for him, or has failed to do things which he knew would benefit him. I am sure that most anyone knows this to be a fact of life. Yet its implications are often overlooked or deliberately rejected.

The health area offers many an illustration for this. When the problem of changing people's health behavior arises, the first thought that usually occurs, is to produce and distribute a booklet, to insert a new course into the curriculum, or to provide eminent speakers on the topic. The primary, and often sole intent is to transmit information, to provide people with "the facts"--with the tacit assumption that "truth" is the only or at least most important instigator of behavioral change.

People must, of course, have certain information in order to act intelligently. They must know what to do, where, when and how to do it. But if they are not particularly motivated, if the recommended action conflicts with other and stronger motives or values, or if it runs counter to the norms and standards of people's social groups, these people are most unlikely to take the action, no matter how well informed they are. I do not know how many here in this room smoke cigarettes--fully aware of the well-proven risks; or how many do not seek periodic examinations for early detection of disease despite full realization that it might save their lives.

In short, pertinent knowledge is certainly a prerequisite for intelligent action, but usually it is not sufficient, by itself, to produce such action. Several other conditions must be met before this effect can be expected. One is that knowledge must be acquired within a context that provides proper motivation--and not only motivation to acquire the knowledge, but also motivation to accept it as a guide to one's conduct. Such acceptance necessitates that the acquired knowledge is seen and perceived by the learner as meaningfully related to situations where it is to be applied. In our case, this means that what is learned in the classroom must be connected to life outside the school system. But to most children, these two--school and life--represent two different worlds. Each has, as far as most children are concerned, its own demands, its own values and standards, its own dominant set of motives.

Take, for example, a course in personal hygiene. When the student studies for the course, his most immediate goal and motive is usually to do well in the course, to get at least a passing grade. Therefore, he may acquire the kind of knowledge that promises a good grade on the examination. But once the examination is over and his goal achieved, his motivation is satisfied. Since he may not also have been motivated to practice what he has learned, he may merely echo the acquired information on the examination, but he may never practice it--in fact, he may quickly forget what he has learned. He may, like a sponge, have soaked up knowledge needed to satisfy classroom demands--and in the examination the sponge is squeezed dry.

He has studied and learned under one set of motives, values and standards--those of the school and of the teacher. But outside the school he may live by a different set of motives, values and standards, and what he has learned in one setting may not be carried over to the other.

This poses a difficult problem, particularly in respect to such socially controversial and emotionally potent matters as drinking, smoking, or sex, where the standards promulgated in the classroom may conflict with standards dominant in the social context in which the young people live. One needs only to think of the child who learns in school about the bad effects of drinking and then finds that his mother has a cocktail ready for his father when he comes home which (as the child may hear often enough) helps him relax and be a more bearable man-in-the-house after a hard day's work. In such a case, the child experiences severe conflict between what his teacher tells him, and what he learns to be facts of the outside world. But instead of transplanting the ideas taught in the classroom to this outside world, the child may simply reject them as irrelevant and unrealistic. In fact, this rejection may intensify in the child's mind the discrepancy between school and "real" life in respect to other subjects as well and lead to further alienation of the child from the school.

It is a basic and well established psychological principle that new knowledge, new beliefs, new attitudes, and new habits are much more readily acquired if they do not seriously conflict with those already in existence. If a new way of thinking and acting can be assimilated within one's social and psychological world, it is more readily adopted than if it means fundamental changes and severe conflict. Therefore, we must take into account the realities of the world in which our adolescents live.

How little we do this, and how difficult it is, can be seen in reference to the most common reasons and appeals that are used in alcohol education today. Many of the arguments we use are really based on concepts and values which are typically adult values and middle-class concepts.

For example: we are concerned about the effects of alcohol on the rational control of one's actions and about the consequent dangers to oneself and to others. This concern reflects social values attached to intelligent judgment, to the virtue of being able to control one's own behavior, and to the responsibility one has for his own and others' welfare and safety. But these values may not be shared by certain segments of our population, especially among the underprivileged in the low socioeconomic levels, nor by many adolescents among whom the thrill of the moment may be cherished more than its rationality; among whom the anticipation and avoidance of possible risks to oneself and to others may be far less salient than the joy of risk-taking and the need to demonstrate that one is not "chicken." To give another example, some of our arguments relate to the possible long-range dangers to our careers and to our psysical and mental health from overindulgence in alcohol. But it is characteristic of these population groups and of many adolescents to be much more concerned with affairs of the immediate present than with their possible consequences in the far future. This is one of the reasons why for the fourteen or fifteen year old the threat that he may get cancer twenty years later, is a rather impotent argument for not enjoying cigarettes now.

In short, many of the facts we teach are irrelevant to the adolescent from his point of view, and some of our most crucial arguments appeal to values which may be extensively lacking among many adolescents whom we try to reach.

The importance of this situation cannot be stressed enough. With the conviction of the righteousness of our cause, we tend to rely overly on "facts." They seem so persuasive, so self-evident, so clearly demonstrated, that we simply cannot believe that they could fail to convince. All we need to do, we tell ourselves, is to repeat the facts relating to abuse of alcohol often enough and emphatically enough, and to lend them additional force by utilizing the latest educational techniques and instrumentations, from the TV screen to programmed learning.

Yet, there is convincing evidence from behavioral science research on communication that "facts" by themselves are singularly ineffectual in changing opinions of persons who are emotionally committed to their own way of looking at an issue. To a person whose beliefs are already in accord with the facts, such additional scientific evidence serves to fortify and perhaps even intensify his beliefs. To a person who feels ambivalence about an issue, and who in this state of uncertainty, is responsive to information that will help him make up his mind, such additional information may be the decisive factor. In both cases, the transmission of information, and of clear indisputable facts concerning alcohol, may be highly effective.

But not so with those persons to whom exessive drinking has become part of their way of life, who do not share those values and beliefs which make us look at abuse of alcohol as an undesirable thing, or who derive substantial psychological and social gains from overindulgence. Facts offered to such persons as evidence that they are misinformed, that their beliefs are mistaken, and that their habit may be deleterious to them, will usually have little impact on them. It has been well-established by research findings that, when a communication contrasts sharply with the recipient's beliefs, he tends to cope with the discrepancy usually in one or more ways: he may reject the information provided as false, irrelevant, or biased; he may distort unconsciously what he hears so that it conforms more with his beliefs; he may "explain away" what he learns ("I don't believe it will happen to me," or "statistics don't prove anything"); or he may asperse the motives and trustworthiness of the communicator.

The point is that over-reliance on the educational power of information-providing techniques presents two very real and serious dangers: on the one hand, the educator may derive a mistaken sense of security and of effectiveness from his confidence in such techniques, and this feeling may mitigate against his search for other or additional approaches and methods; on the other hand, while undoubtedly helping many adolescents, he may fail at the same time with exactly those who need most to be influenced.

The task is not just to get our young people to drink moderately (or not at all), to drink only under "safe" conditions, or to act prudently when they know they are under the influence of alcohol. If these issues were as simple as that, the problem of alcohol would be far less difficult than it is. But excessive drinking--like smoking, reckless driving, sexual promiscuity, and a host of other behaviors--is only one manifestation of a style of life generated, maintained and reinforced by a variety of social and psychological factors. The habituated need to turn to alcoholic beverages, whether it is psychologically or socially determined, is not obviated by evidence as to its foolhardiness or the danger involved. Either the psychosocial sources for this need are removed (a task well begond the usual capability of educational institutions), or he is shown ways to satisfy this need in more moderate and desirable ways which he can integrate into his existing style of life without having to relinquish the benefits, real or imagined, which he has been enjoying up to then.

It is self-evident that such an educational goal presents extremely difficult and involved problems, and that mere reliance on an informational or "teaching" approach could not possibly make much progress. It is equally self-evident that the educational effort must go beyond the content area of alcohol, but must come to grip with much more general problems which reside mostly outside the school. Such efforts must be adapted to the beliefs, customs, values, and social milieu of those whom we try to reach. Only to the degree to which we succeed in this, can we ever hope to succeed at all.

Since, however, the cultural background, the standards and social customs vary a great deal among our younger generations, no single, uniform approach can succeed with all children. What may work with children from typically middle-class homes, may fail altogether with children from the low socioeconomic strata. What may be remarkably effective with children from homes where drinking customs are moderate and rationally controlled, may be patently wasted on children who are accustomed to indiscriminate excessive drinking in their families. Nor would the same approach be likely to succeed with both: those adolescents whose social life with other boys and girls is dominated by well-developed group drinking customs, and those whose leisure time activities are relatively free from indulgence in alcoholic drinks.

We have then two important points to consider: first that educational efforts in this realm are the more likely to succeed, the less they generate serious conflicts with already existing beliefs, value systems, social customs, personal habits,--in short, if the child is able to assimilate the new knowledge, the new beliefs and values, and the new habits to his daily life without overwhelming traumatic experiences. And second, that these conditions differ a great deal between children from different social environments both in the home and in their associations with peer groups. The latter implies that we must adapt our approaches and methods to the characteristics of specific subgroups of adolescents. It argues against the development of general alcohol education programs to be used uniformly in all schools, or with all children in one school, or often even all children in one class. Instead, we might carefully study the scope of relevant psychological, social, economic and environmental conditions that may affect children's attitudes and behavior in respect to alcohol consumption, analyze them into major significant configurations, and develop guidelines for separate specific approaches and methods which appear to be most promising for each of these. If enough background information were then gathered about the children who are to receive alcohol education, they could be classified and divided into groups accordingly, so that each can receive the most appropriate specialized educational treatment.

I realize the difficulty of following up on this idea and the many problems it would entail, but I am firmly convinced that we must let the specific concrete needs and problems of those whom we wish to help, dictate what we do, instead of relying only on the opinions and professional biases of those who are experts on alcohol and alcohol education.

Let us now turn to another dimension of alcohol education, that of motivation. Despite a popular misconception, "motivation" is not the single all-important determinant of human behavior that it is commonly assumed to be. The expectation, that all that is needed to get a person to act in a certain way is to properly motivate him, is a naive one. For even when motivated, a person may not always be able or willing to act as we hope. The hungry person will want to get food. But what will he eat, where, when or how--even whether he will eat, these things will be determined by a variety of other factors, such as, if food or money are available; whether he happens to be alone or has to consider the wishes of others; whether other, more urgent things need to be done; and so forth.

The child who is motivated to accept and follow the principles we teach in alcohol education may also not be able to do so because of other psychological needs or because of powerful contrary forces in his social environment, the same forces that may have led him into drinking to begin with. Every smoker who has been truly motivated to quit but has failed despite desperate efforts, can attest to this.

In most cases alcohol education has focused on providing students with appropriate knowledge of facts, and perhaps even on trying to motivate students to act in accordance with the implications from these facts. However, only rarely have these programs gone further, to consider what problems or difficulties the children may face in trying to translate their learning and motivation into action. And in even fewer cases have there been any efforts to help the child find ways in which he could cope with such problems and difficulties. The fact is that it may often be less important to try to instill knowledge and better standards in many of our students, than to help them to live up to standards to which they may already be oriented. Since the difficulties that may be encountered in this also vary with the psychological make-up of the child and with the social environment in which he lives, such efforts must also be dictated by the needs of identifiable subgroups.

I do not believe that we can ever overemphasize the need to anchor our educational efforts in the *real* world of our children--the dynamic world outside the school, with all its complex interplay of good and adverse social influences, its constructive and destructive elements, which shape their development with forces that no abstract booklearning could hope to match. To make inroads into this world of reality, we must carefully adapt our own efforts to this world and find ways of making them practical, useful, and realistic *in the eyes of the children*. This goes not only for our educational approaches and methods, but even for our educational goals themselves. Instead of being guided merely by some noble and ideal concepts, we must reconsider and carefully analyze what we wish to accomplish and what realistic objectives we should set ourselves. I am not concerned at this moment with what the final goal *ought* to be, nor with the moral or ethical sides of the problem but with the realism of the situation in terms of what can and cannot be achieved today or tomorrow. This is especially salient because of, what I believe to be an inescapable fact: excessive use of alcohol--just as smoking, sexual promiscuity, or drug addiction--are symptoms, not causes of pathological psychosocial conditions. Any educational efforts which do not recognize this, will try to attain unattainable goals and will, by definition, be unrealistic in their basic concepts. The greater the conflict between the world as the children know it on the one hand, and what we teach on the other, the less likely they will be to listen, learn, and change. For example, to stress only the bad sides of drinking and to deny the fact that it can offer also pleasure and physical, psychological and social advantages to many people, is to fly in the face of clear reality as experienced by many people, including adolescents. No wonder that, when such a one-sided presentation in alcohol education is used, the message is rejected altogether by those who are convinced that the teacher is eigher ignorant of the facts of life or too prejudiced to accept them.

I believe therefore that educational attempts which are colored by total rejection of the use of alcohol, which stresses only its negative aspects, and which neglect to recognize its gratifying and positive aspects, are bound to affect only a relatively small minority of those who are to be influenced. The rest will refute such educational efforts as clearly at variance with reality. To make matters worse, antagonism may be generated, and the rejection of the validity of the school's teaching may spread to other, related educational areas.

By aspiring to more modest goals and being less polemic, we may actually achieve more. It may be better to succeed in persuading some young people to drink in moderation, to drink only under certain circumstances, and to act more carefully when they *have* been drinking, than to fail altogether. Sometimes, *secondary* prevention may be better than attempts at *primary* prevention. My own personal view is that the problem of alcohol education is more like that of driver training than of, say, education in respect to use of narcotics. In the latter it is indeed an all-or-nothing matter. But we do not tell people never to drive because it could lead to accidents. Instead, we try to teach them to drive carefully and skillfully. With youngsters in whose case total abstinence is a hopeless cause, we might consider the compromise of doing the same: instead of advocating outright and complete abstinence, we might try to teach them to minimize the undesirable effects of drinking--openly recognizing, at the same time, that there may be also pleasant and even desirable ones.

I would finally like to point out one other matter that may have important implications for our educational programs. More often than not, concerted attempts to deal with the subject of alcohol begin when the children have reached the age at which the question of drinking--or, for that matter, smoking, sex, drug addiction, or similar issues--have become pressing issues. By then, basic attitudes may already have formed, and the children are by that time subjected to a variety of powerful influences which may create or intensify resistances to our attempts.

Educational efforts should start *much* earlier so that, when the child reaches adolescence, he brings to this crucial age a preparedness to accept our message and to resist contrary influences. If I may offer an analogy--though one that is not altogether fitting--the child learns to brush his teeth long before he learns (or could understand) the health reasons for it. The habit is well established by the time he learns the concrete health reasons for cleaning one's teeth regularly. Therefore such learning, when it occurs, is not at variance with his established customary actions--it simply provides him with additional and better reasons for it. Consequently, he is less likely to be swayed by other children who try to pursuade him that it is not "in" to brush one's teeth. In the same way, we might try to instill in the young child a *habitual way of thinking* about alcohol, sex, or cigarettes which is well established by the time we can add more concrete and specific knowledge about these matters. In other words, alcohol education in this sense, should start long before he reaches an age when he finds himself torn between contradictory influences.

I have referred several times to such other areas as smoking, sex education, or drug addition. This reflects the close relationship between these areas and that of alcohol education. Clearly the educational problems in alcohol education spill over into those of these other educational areas. Setting up separate educational units for each of them is an artificial segmentation of closely interwoven psychological and social issues. This segmentation can be defended only as long as we restrict ourselves to providing factual information. The moment we move into the psychosocial realm, these several areas fuse into a single one--an area with closely interrelated causes, conditions, problems, and indicated educational treatment. To adhere to separate and even uncoordinated educational attacks on these several problem areas, is doing no better than the physician who treats each of several symptoms in a patient separately, without realizing that they are all caused by the same disease.

In the same sense, we must promote wider recognition by educators of the fact that problems in this realm are deeply anchored in the general social environment of the children outside the school, and that attempts to cope with these problems can never succeed if we restrict ourselves to the school system with all of its inherent inescapable limitations. Therefore, it is particularly important in educational areas such as alcohol, sex, smoking or drug addition, for the school and for others in the community to join forces. The school must reach out into the social world of the adolescents, and it must work with other groups and organizations whose activities affect various aspects of this world, not only in educational terms, but also in respect to the psychosocial, economic, and political aspects. As long as education about drinking, smoking, sex, and related topics is classroom-bound, its effects will be severely limited except in the form of good performance on classroom examinations. Better instructional techniques, even programmed learning, will not change this.

And this will also hold true as long as the great complexity and importance of problems relating to such areas as drinking, smoking, or drug addition do not receive the appreciation they deserve. In only too many schools, it is customary to assign to courses in these areas teachers who do not understand these problems, who are inadequately trained and emotionally ill-equipped for the task. This is not only a waste but may actually further intensify the problems. No wonder many of these educators are so overly concerned with teaching-materials and teaching-techniques--programmed learning, use of audiovisual aids, educational TV, or posters--that they fail to come to grips with the psychosocial dynamics and their implications, that is with the educational problems.

Perhaps I have over-stressed the difficulties and problems of alcohol education. I hope I did not communicate a spirit of discouragement.

It is highly probable that even today's alcohol education does have some success, perhaps even a good deal of success. But we do not know. We do not know what approaches, now in use, are effective, with whom and to what extent. Yet we must know this in order to develop more effective methods. But, to the best of my knowledge, no intensive and systematic large-scale evaluations have been carried out despite the urgent need for such evaluations. It is unfortunate that many alcohol education programs have been launched, praised and often emulated on the basis of personal beliefs in their effectiveness, on the basis of the intensity of effort and enthusiasm that have gone into them, and on the basis of praise by teachers, parents or school administration. None of these are proper and reliable criteria of effectiveness. A program's effectiveness can be assessed only by measuring actual change in knowledge, attitudes or behavior against the kind and amount of change in these variables which had been set as goals at the outset. Thus, a program with the goal of merely increasing children's information about alcohol, can be evaluated by comparing these children's knowledge before and after the program. Similarly, if we wish to assess the effectiveness of a program whose goal it is to produce certain changes in children's attitudes toward alcohol, we must first establish their present attitudes, decide specifically what we wish their attitudes to be afterward, assess these attitudes after the program, and measure those attitudinal changes that have in fact occurred.

In most cases, however, we are concerned, first and foremost, with changing drinking habits--that is, actual behavior. We are interested in better information and in sounder attitudes only because we believe that these, in turn, will lead to corresponding behavioral changes. But, just because children learn the facts of alcohol, and just because they develop more desirable attitudes, does in no way assure that corresponding changes in their drinking habits also occur. Knowledge and attitudes alone do not determine people's actions. A program whose explicit goal is to modify children's drinking habits, can therefore be evaluated only by assessing the degree of actual changes in drinking behavior. Even the demonstration that the children have learned a good many facts about alcohol and that their attitudes towards alcohol have changed in the desired direction, does not necessarily demonstrate the program's success in terms of its originally stated goals and objectives.

As long as we continue with developing and carrying out alcohol education programs without proper and adequate evaluation of their real accomplishments, we will never know which approaches, methods and techniques accomplish their intended purpose--under what conditions and with which children. And not knowing where we are succeeding or failing now, the road towards improvement of our educational efforts is a nebulous one, with no direction and with no guidepost to tell us whether it is the right or wrong one. There is no sense in experimenting with new methods or with sophisticated new gadgets if we do not know how well we do.

Perhaps the most urgent need today is for research-oriented evaluation of our present educational programs. Only such evaluation, together with more systematic utilization of the growing body of behavioral science knowledge about human behavior, can provide the basis for the development of more effective educational programs.

But even so, only the most unrealistic optimist can expect sweeping changes in the undesirable aspects of the social life of our adolescents within the near future. Abuse of alcohol--and smoking, promiscuous sexual activities, and all the other behavioral patterns which we deplore so much--these are old and universal problems. They have deep roots in many facets of our society. We cannot expect to cope with them effectively with crush problems, nor by short-term plans. We must maintain a long-term perspective and think in terms of generations of children rather than in terms of semester courses, or in terms of the fiscal years of Federal grant projects. Nor can we expect great successes as long as we attack each of these problems--alcohol, smoking, and the others--as though they were isolated targets, forgetting their close interdependence and their roots in common social, psychological and economic conditions. Only through long-range comprehensive and integrated planning involving research, educational experimentation, and constant systematic evaluation can we expect to see truly effective education in these problem areas emerge. If we keep this in view, we will not feel the occasional pangs of failure at the seemingly little progress we seem to be making from year to year.

## PANEL ON "ALCOHOL EDUCATION IN THE SCHOOL"

Introductory Remarks by the Panel Moderator, Herbert S. Conrad, Ph.D.

Program Evaluation Officer, Bureau of Research, Office of Education,
Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

Our topic for the remainder of this afternoon is "Alcohol Education in the School." Of course, education occurs in many places besides the school, and through many sources besides teachers: above all, in one's neighborhood, and one's club or gang; and through one's parents, one's peers, and one's fellow workers and superiors--to say nothing of the mass media. But the school offers what is probably the most accessible and controllable tool for education; and the school needs to be utilized fully.

At the risk of repetition, let me emphasize, briefly, that the abuse of alcohol is a universal problem (at least, it occurs in all civilized societies); but it is not one problem: its etiology varies, and consequently its prevention and cure must vary. Alcoholism is also a stubborn problem in its resistance both to prevention and cure--which suggests that, at least for the present, a pluralistic approach is essential, and that short-cut, quick, miraculous results are not within our grasp. Again, it is clear that the school has a contribution to make; but more than the school alone will be required to safeguard and promote healthy attitudes and habits toward the use of alcohol.

This afternoon, a generous portion of time has been reserved for questions and discussion. I hope you will take advantage of this opportunity.

It is now my pleasure to introduce to you the first of our Panel members, Dr. Frances Todd, of the San Francisco Public Schools.

## THE TEACHER

Frances Todd, Ed. D.

Teacher and Counselor, Balboa High School, San Francisco, California

The first of my three points is that the teacher's major concern should be primary prevention of drunkenness among teenagers who experiment with drinking.

It is a tenet of the public health control of any disorder that preventing an illness before it can start is the most lasting way to conquer it. Although we do not know how to prevent alcoholism, because we do not know all its causes, we do know what causes drunkenness. But only about half of the selected adult test groups for the TV broadcast of the recent National Health Test knew even the most basic facts about alcoholic beverages. The need for broader and more effective alcohol education is quite apparent.

Many older teenagers experiment with drinking, often with parental knowledge, consent, and support, but almost none have had time enough to establish harmful routine habits of excessive drinking. I doubt whether alcohol education in school can counteract the stronger influences of the home, of our cocktail culture, of peer pressures, and of the haste with which we grant youth

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other adult privileges. How can a teacher challenge the custom of social drinking if it is accepted in the community in which he teaches, or expect to eliminate drinking in the face of the statistics about alcoholic beverage consumption?

Whether an individual drinks or not is a personal matter, but How he drinks becomes a public concern if his drinking results in antisocial behavior. We should teach about alcohol, not just against it. There's little we can do to stop drinking, but much we can do to control it.

Within the context of existing instructional media, even in classical literature or Latin, there are illustrations of the outcomes of the misuse of alcohol which the teacher can use to counteract forces of excess license, and to help young people develop values which will discourage immoderate drinking. Additional primary prevention should accrue by teaching specific ground rules about controlled drinking, such as slowly sipping a tall one while munching on protein tidbits at a social affair, rather than gulping a short strong one five hours after a light lunch and five minutes before battling the freeway. Or, by teaching why inexperienced drinkers are especially prone to intoxication.

Teaching about alcohol rather than against it is not synonymous with encouraging drinking. Rather than brainwashing or indoctrinating against all drinking, we should stress the positive advantages of either abstinence or controlled drinking. Drinking is controversial, but it is not the teacher's job to decide that debate for anyone but himself. On the other hand, drunkenness is not controversial--it's just plain wrong, and it can be prevented.

Scientists believe that of every sixteen people who drink, fifteen do so moderately and one, immoderately. The teacher, with his captive classroom audience of nondrinkers or seldom-drinkers, seven out of ten of whom will probably eventually drink, is in a very favorable position to help youth become ineligible for the "one" club.

My second point is that all teachers are inescapably involved in the school alcohol education program and in its goal of primary prevention. The pupil whose parent is the unfortunate "1" alcoholic of the "16" statistical drinkers, comes to the classroom emotionally and often physically handicapped. His ability to learn is impaired by his preoccupation with forces he cannot understand nor accept. His apathy or even hostility to the school may be aggravated rather than relieved by the teacher who is not aware that to such a child the lesson is of little concern because of his feelings of insecurity. Guidance and counseling, human understanding, and supplemental learning opportunities can help this child, as a child, and as a learner. If such help is unavailable, inadequate, or postponed until poor behavior patterns are set, it is likely that he will seek solace from his feelings of personal inadequacy and his lack of basic skills the same way his alcoholic parent does.

My last point is that alcohol education consultants or specialists are needed in each school and/or school district.

Alcohol is so complex a subject and drinking is of such controversial nature that every teacher cannot be expected to be fully competent to teach units of instruction about alcohol. Mastery of the subject matter alone requires depth and breadth interdisciplinary study of its sociological, psychological, medical, physiological, and economic facets. Any teacher, given time and interest, could learn and dispense facts, but not every teacher has personal attributes which enable him to develop in young people attitudes and values that will lead to their selection of any uncontrolled drinking and their acceptance of personal responsibility for its prevention.

How we teach about alcohol is even more important than what we teach. An alcohol education consultant needs personal qualities which cannot be acquired by taking a course or reading a book. He must be emotionally mature, stable, and secure. He must be sensitive to the community climate concerning drinking and aware of the influences of varying familial and religious beliefs. He must separate his own biases from facts and objective judgements. He must like young people and be liked by them. He must know how to channel advantageously the powerful gang influences of adolescents. He must do far more than tell about alcohol. He must help students discriminate between real and false values, and between facts and propaganda, and guide them as they unsnarl their confused and conflicting feelings. He thus aids in the development of a quiet pride in controlled behavior in a variety of life situations. With such pride, and with adequate knowledge about alcohol, young people will look with sadness, not amusement upon irresponsible drinking by anyone of any age. And from these values will develop a belief that when and if alcoholic beverages are used, their use should enhance human relationships, not threaten nor destroy them.

To summarize, let's shun such unrealistic goals as preventing chronic alcoholism, a task no one has yet been able to accomplish; or preventing drinking in a community which obviously considers it a social custom; or expecting total abolition of all human problems related to man's age-old desire for quick relief from human tensions; or predicate instruction on blind faith that teenagers don't experiment with drinking.

Instead, let's make available adequate community and administrative support for education about alcohol to our youth, the only segment of our growing population which has not yet had time enough to establish harmful habits of excessive drinking. Let's teach them the lasting values of abstinence, if this is their choice, or how to likely limit their drinking, should they choose to drink. Let's teach them the warning signs that indicate when the latent for potential danger in alcohol may be a real threat. Let's teach them social and personal responsibility toward those who are ill from any cause.

Let's teach them how to survive in our cocktail culture.

## DISCUSSION

DR. CONRAD: Now, are there any questions or comments from the floor? I would like to start out, if no one else will, with a question. What do you do with parents who object to what you are teaching? There are some who favor abstinence, there are some who favor moderation, there are some who favor all kinds of doctrination, etc.

DR. TODD: I think again if we are teaching about alcohol, about the custom of drinking for those who choose to do so, that there should be an awareness of the fact that--at least in the community I come from, which is one of the highest in alcoholic consumption as well as in alcoholism in the whole country--we are not recommending drinking or not drinking.

DR. CONRAD: What about the misrepresentation by the pupils when they go home and say you did tell them what to do?

DR. TODD: Well, I think we get this in almost anything, and you have to handle that situation by ear. I have never been faced with it specifically, but I think you play it by ear at the time. The same thing comes up in sex education. It comes up in other areas when you are trying to teach them so as to help them establish values--facts, values, attitudes. I think you have to expect to be misrepresented and misunderstood.

DR. MADDOX: Apropos to what someone was saying this morning, and to what I think I feel, too, there may be a large number of people who might be very relieved that somebody is dealing with these issues. If we went back 15 or 20 years, the kind of issue you are raising might have been the frequent experience of a teacher. It may be that a teacher venturing in this area now will discover relief rather than concern on the part of the parents.

DR. HEIN: I would like to ask how your work is organized in terms of school program. Is this part of a total education program, or what is it?

DR. TODD: I come from an area where there is no such animal as to total school health program. My interest is purely as an individual classroom teacher in my own classes, with an interest shared by some of my colleagues.

DR. YOHO: When you get beyond the facts that relate to the law and scientific facts about alcoholism, where do you get the facts about alcohol which you teach? I can't find them myself.

DR. TODD: What facts are you referring to?

DR. YOHO: Well, I understand the facts in relationship to the law as the panel mentioned this morning, and that there are facts relating to what alcohol is, but where do you get the other facts about the problems related to alcohol, whether it is a disease or whether it is a symptom of a disease, etc?

DR. TODD: Well, you are asking where I get them. I have quite a collection of references because of my interest in the field, a combination of some of the things that have come out of Matt Curtis and various public health and school health and medical journals, and sociological sources of that nature.

MRS. SANDS: I just want to say I think this is one of our problems, that we don't have a lot of resource material in one spot, and this becomes a problem when you are going to find your person who is going to teach about alcohol.

I am motivated by it because I am a health teacher, or feel alive with the cause or something, but when it begins to be relegated into other areas of the curriculum, this is where you are going to run into trouble. The civics or Latin people aren't going to be motivated. This is the problem. If they have to look too far to get the facts, they have so many other chores related to their own subject matter that they don't want to be bothered or they can't handle it, and then they have it done not at all or done inadequately or incorrectly.

So the fact is we just need the time to find the material.

I use Miss Todd's book. That is one of the reasons I appreciate it. Some of the material is gathered for me.

DR. SILVERMAN: I think I may relieve some of you who are concerned with this by pointing out that Rutgers has available a fantastic amount of background information.

You also may be interested to know that the government, through the National Institute of Mental Health, will present probably within the next few months a governmental report summarizing the present state of knowledge in this field as indicated by the outstanding authorities in the field.

DR. BYLER: Could I contribute to this, to call to your attention the availability of the Archives collections that are now available in some states.

DR. CONRAD: May I ask a possibly--I hope a final--question? Is there not also a possibility, when a class of students is alienated from the teacher, that whatever the teacher says has definitely negative value in the sense that if she says one thing the class believes the opposite?

DR. TODD: I believe this is true, and I was alluding to that when I said I thought that how alcohol education is taught is even more important than what is taught.

DR. CONRAD: We educators always try to find an argument for higher teachers' salaries, and I was thinking if we had better teachers, teachers with more prestige and ability, they might get along better in this domain as well as in all others.

MR. LEWIS: I wonder if you use any visual aids in your presentation of the subject matter.

DR. TODD: Yes, I use some of the films and some film strips, and some of my youngsters in the past have made some rather interesting things, the value of which was in their constructing them, but which are good enough to use as interest-getters, if nothing else....I think there is a big need for different types of approaches for different communities, as was brought out this morning.

MR. LEWIS: In other words, you--as teacher--feel that it is important to have more up-to-date visual aids to demonstrate the subject matter to the students?
DR. TODD: More variety of things from which to choose for the particular classroom situation.

MR. LEWIS: And is this something that the Federal government could provide for us?

DR. TODD: They could probably spark it. I think it should better come from people who are doing this in the field with the financial blessing, and so forth, rather than a theoretical approach.

MR. LEWIS: In other words, it could be used across the nation rather than something that can be developed in an individual State?

DR. TODD: Oh, right. Right.

MR. LEWIS: And you also feel, I take it, that there is a great need for this?

DR. TODD: Oh, yes.

## ALCOHOL EDUCATION IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Charles E. Holloday

Superintendent of Schools, Tupelo, Mississippi

The problems involved with an administrator trying to develop units of study and courses of study, that will be effective in the teaching of alcohol education, are multiplied because we lack knowledge in this area.

Most school administrators find that the problems they encounter, when you begin to discuss an effective program in alcohol education, are so difficult that they get discouraged and, in most cases, fail to do anything along this line. Some of our problems have been the lack of preparation on the part of teachers; lack of materials to teach this program; the lack of time to bring this program to its conclusion; the lack of interest on the part of students, parents, teachers, and community as to the need of this program; and the misunderstanding or (understanding) on the part of some that this is a job that should be undertaken only by the church and home. Whatever the barriers we have encountered concerning this program, most of us have not been too successful in making this part of our school program meet the needs of the boys and girls. If we are going to have well educated and well rounded citizens, then alcohol education becomes a much more important part of their total education.

The community that I represent has been most fortunate in working in this area in that we are able to work with Mississippi State University and their Department of Sociology and Anthropology in securing information that helps identify needs and areas of concern on the part of the students, community, and parents. In addition to having a complete survey made of the community concerning attitudes and drinking habits, we have secured the services of two half time alcohol education workers, through a grant received by Mississippi State University, to help develop a program that will be significant in the teaching of alcohol education. These instructors will work with materials, students, parents, religious groups, ministers, officials, civic groups, and others to try and determine the best ways of arriving at a solution to our problems. This program has been very well received in our community with much interest being shown on the part of all concerned. This is a five year program and one, we trust, will offer some results worthy of the effort involved in the study.

A separate study on the attitudes of students on alcohol education in two communities by Dr. Gerald Globetti of Mississippi State University pointed out,

> "First, this investigation demonstrates that the students desire to learn more about alcohol and its use. However, few are receiving such information and the quality of that which is transmitted is questionable. In both communities the organized agencies of the family, school and church should be indicated for their lack of concern in this area. The use of alcohol is part of and entrenched within the student subculture. Yet, if a student wishes to discuss it, he must in most cases turn to his age peers. One can hardly fail to draw the parallel between alcohol education and sex education."
>
> "Second, educators have no reason to doubt the students motivation to learn about alcohol. However, he should realize that to a young person the use of intoxicants is a sensitive topic. If a student seeks his advice about drinking he should be understanding and trustworthy. For in discussing alcohol with someone, these are the characteristics for which a young person looks. Furthermore, parents and school officials in the two communities have little to boast about in their instruction concerning alcohol. Few students would turn to school officials to discuss alcohol and although the young people would turn to parents, the data indicate that few parents actually discuss alcohol with their children."
>
> "Finally, the students have a vague idea of the meaning of alcoholism and realize that the alcoholic needs help. This is encouraging for these young people are the future community leaders. In addition, since a number of students have an alcoholic within their close kin of interacting groups, they should have some information on how to cope with the attendant problems associated with alcoholism."

Alcohol education development will be no stronger than the people who promote and work in this field. I am astounded by the lack of interest on the part of educators generally. We have tried our best to turn this over to the health department and they had a tendency to salve our conscience with the thought that others were responsible. We must promote the same concern for teaching alcohol education that we have for English, social studies, math, science, and other areas of study. When this becomes important to us we will find the teachers, materials, equipment, finances and anything else necessary for success in alcohol education.

## DISCUSSION

MR. DEMONE: I was wondering how the community has responded to this program.

MR. HOLLODAY: We have been very pleased. This was a question that entered my mind when we gave permission to do the survey within our schools. But I have not had a single telephone call or a visit from a single person who objected to this study.

And I might mention, along with this same idea, the sex education that was mentioned a little bit before. We have recently had some interest in this area, and this is another field in which public schools do not take very active part in promoting education. We invited psychologists from one of our local universities to speak to our student body. I took the boys by grade, and he gave them the basic facts of life, as basic as we could make them. One of the boys said to another one, "Wait until my mother hears about this. She's going to call Mr. Holloday." But I have not had a single call about this, and I think this brings out what was mentioned a moment ago, that parents are relieved--they are looking for somebody to work in this area, and they are glad to have some assistance in it.

DR. MADDOX: I know something in a secondhand way about the situation which might throw some light on why there has been less furor than was expected.

The people that went into these communities asked these professional people, teachers, parents, whoever in the community was interested, for their help. They wanted them to look at the various kinds of information that might be given with the idea, not that this is what your children ought to be receiving, but asking--given the alternatives--what would you like your children to be exposed to? My impression is that the parents have responded, which goes back to this point that here people may be waiting--especially if they have the option, or what appears to be the option--of making some impact on determining what, as a matter of fact, their children do receive.

MR. HOLLODAY: You might be interested in knowing there were to be five communities involved in this study; for some reason that I never could really find out, only two studies were completed and three dropped by the wayside. One of the communities was on the Gulf Coast, one on the Mississippi River, and the other was to be in the south central part of the state, which would be a rural area in its entirety.

DR. CONRAD: Did you engage in any teacher training before this work was started?

MR. HOLLODAY: We have had the alcohol education workshop at Mississippi State and Mississippi Southern. We have had from our staff two or three persons in attendance every summer for the last three or four years, with expenses paid. Now we have some trained people on our staff. Usually we send physical ed, science teachers, principals, others who just had an interest in this area.

By and large, we do not find that these people are adequately trained prior to going to this workshop. But they would come back with a real good foundation, and we feel it can help in the community and school.

MR. LEWIS: In Connecticut, we sent out a questionnaire to every superintendent of schools, these superintendents stated that they considered the obligation to teach about the effects of alcohol as important or very important, while the teaching colleges did not consider it important. There was a definite clash of opinion here, we regretted the fact that the teaching colleges were not cognizant of the needs of the superintendent.

I would think that this is a subject which could be discussed at future meetings of HEW and teaching colleges. Our experience in our state indicates that they do not regard this subject matter important enough to alert their would-be teachers.

DR. CONRAD: We have at the end of the program a report by a college teacher, and maybe Mrs. Sands will be able to give us some help on this.

MR. LEWIS POLK: I notice Mr. Holloday mentioned the Department of Health. I wish he would elaborate on that just a little more. I didn't quite understand what their part was. Did they ask for Health Department assistance, and if so, did they receive it or not?

MR. HOLLODAY: We have had just tremendous cooperation with our local county Health Department.
By and large, most school superintendents and most schools have left sex education and alcohol education and other controversial subjects to an agency which wasn't connected with them personally. They have had speakers come into a school--for instance, in a biology class, when they are teaching the unit on alcoholism or the use of alcohol, or alcohol itself, then they would bring in a speaker from the Health Department.

This is really about the only way they have been helpful to us, and mostly we have said, "Well, this is something that they could do, this is somebody else's job, not ours." This has been true with the churches.

MR. POLK: Do you see any future activities here for the health department?

MR. HOLLODAY: Oh, yes, I do. I could say now one of the real problems that we face--is obtaining materials to develop units of study: Some listed materials are out of date and aren't available. A number of the films that we secure now we order through the State Health Department. One of the things that we are going to have to do if we do an adequate job, is make these materials readily available to the teacher, and in good operating condition.

MR. YOHO: May I ask again, is this a separate course on alcohol education, or is it a unit within some other course, such as health or biology?

MR. HOLLODAY: At the present time, we are not teaching a separate course of alcohol education. This is meshed into our science classes, into our physical ed classes, in our home room activity, and in our driver education activity.

We think that from this study we will be able to develop enough material to bring in a separate course as our driver education is at the present time, taught at the junior high school level. We don't know exactly what level, but somewhere in this age group we will have a course offered like our driver education, which is a part of a year, not a complete year, offered as a separate unit and required of all students.

MR. HEIN: So many things have been mentioned here that do have priorities in terms of health--smoking, sex education, alcohol education, venereal disease education. My question is wouldn't it be nice to have a person with a major in health education and a course in health education where all of these things could be grouped and taught and given proper priority?

MR. HOLLODAY: Yes, sir.

DR. HOCHBAUM: I was rather shocked with the fact that you collected data to begin with, before you planned your program, which is very good. Will you be able to make any attempt to evaluate the effectiveness of this teaching on the children? I mean, does or will the program have any effect on the children's drinking behavior?

MR. HOLLODAY: Are you talking about in our community?

DR. HOCHBAUM: In your community--either way.

MR. HOLLODAY: This program we have developed, and in which we are using federal money to do this job, requires a report. This survey that we have done recently on the attitudes that I mentioned was a part of this continuing study, and we will actually have some follow-up studies made. We think we should be able to see some results, negative or affirmative, in this study before it is complete.

DR. HOCHBAUM: May I ask, when you talk about results, do you mean in terms of, say, how many children drink, when, where, how much, etc., before and after?

MR. HOLLODAY: Yes. This information is available to us now, not by name, but in a statistical form. Actually we could get this information by asking the children. We have identified them generally. I could go into our high school and pick out the youngsters who are potential alcoholics today. We have a teacher's son who is a brilliant boy and whose father has a fine federal job, and his parents just can't get him off alcohol. He has a real problem. His parents have a problem, and the community is going to have a problem.

One of the things that we found, is that children from certain religious backgrounds have been less likely to be involved in the excessive use of alcohol than those from others. As I mentioned, we are predominantly Protestant with a Baptist denominational background, and this has given us a great deal of difference between the two communities even today. If any of you have a chance to read these studies, you can see that immediately.

DR. CONRAD: No religious group is immune. I received a few days ago a proposal for a study of alcohol education in Utah, which, of course, is dominated by the Mormons, who are not supposed to drink alcohol at all. This is a universal problem in all groups without any exception apparently.

MISS VICTOR: Wilma Victor from Utah.

I thought I had better explain a point. A few years ago the State's average consumption of alcohol was about sixth in the country, but the state explained it by noting that tourism is extremely high.

DR. CONRAD: Undoubtedly true.

MISS VICTOR: I had a question for Mr. Holloday. He spoke of extending this training to the junior high age. I wondered if the original survey didn't indicate that there would be an advantage of going even further down.

MR. HOLLODAY: Now our survey did not go into the elementary schools, which would be 11 and 12 years old. We did start with the seventh grade, 12 and 13 year olds, and we found that a lot of them had their first drink somewhere in this neighborhood. This is the thing, we felt like this ought to be the place where we would start.

DR. CONRAD: Are there other questions?

DR. SILVERMAN: Perhaps some of you might have done a double take--as I did earlier--when Mr. Holloday pointed out the possibility that you can predict potential alcoholics either by intuition or by any other technique. Recently, as some of you may know, we have been rather grudgingly reaching the conclusion that you can.

For the last six or seven years we have been working with Sadoun and Lolli on national drinking patterns including a nationwide study in France conducted with the French Government. These are all retrospective studies and they suffer from the same statistical weaknesses that all such investigations do. Nonetheless, we have studied large groups of clearent alcoholics in comparison with abstainers and normal drinkers. It has become quite clear to most of us now that, retrospectively, we could have picked out these people who have now become alcoholics--not during their late teens or in their middle teens--but probably by the time they were 12 or 11 or 10 years old, at an age at which many of these young Frenchmen had not even started to drink.

Thus, if we are withholding formal education until high school, what about the concept that learning about drinking--or developing drinking attitudes--is one of the so called folkways? I think someone has said that folkways are generally learned by the time children are ten years old.

DR. CONRAD: Dr. Silverman, in the case of this retrospective study, you can predict a deviation, but aren't there many others who in the early ages show similar abnormal behavior which would lead not to drinking, but to some other maladjustment?

DR. SILVERMAN: Right. The goal of this would be picking out not merely the youngsters who will get probably into trouble, but those who will probably attempt to solve their emotional problems by excessive drinking.

MR. HANNERS: A moment ago the gentleman behind me indicated that it might be desirable to have one person teach all of these problem areas, and be specially equipped and trained. I know where a school is using the opposite approach; not that they are seeking unprepared people, but they are now having a two-day seminar on alcohol at a junior high school, and every teacher for those two days teaches about alcohol at the level of his own training and background. This means getting every teacher involved. It means getting the PTA involved. They sent out some material from NCA to the whole community--to the parents, to the ministers, the press, the churches. This is what they were doing.

Now, to my way of thinking, this looked like one of the most hopeful things that I have ever seen in a public school, there was no serious reaction, not even a great deal of emotion involved in it. It was all very matter of fact. I thought it was very hopeful.

This material is mimeographed. I would be glad to send a copy to anybody who wants it, and then you could write to the people involved. They were going to follow this up to find out what the reaction was, both on the part of parents and teachers, and did it really reach the students.

DR. HEIN: Yes, what happened. Well, I don't think this is a question of either/or. Such a point of emphasis along the way would be a good emphasis, but we need a steady ongoing educational break that permeates the school all the way through with points of emphasis brought out and community involvement. This is fine, but it need not be one or the other.

DR. RICE: We are very interested in the learning program of children and youth. This morning one of Dr. Maddox's final points was that he felt the need is tremendous but he or had some apprehension about the interest.

I think perhaps from my own personal point of view that alcohol, smoking, sex, safety--you name it--are much too important to be left on the perimeter, to have us merely put out fires as they arise, as the problem seems to be aggravated in our various communities. I think our children are very precious and I think we ought to have a sound total health education program that reflects sound planning and the best interest of total health.

## THE HEALTH EDUCATOR

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Our Division's chief aim in life has been to divert the community furor surrounding teenage drinking to concern about excessive drinking--on the part of both adults and teenagers--thus paving the way for school and church programs for young people with a common goal, i.e., helping them to define their own personal responsibility in relation to drinking. Our specific aim is to try to prevent excessive drinking. We try to do this by involving young people in a definition of standards to govern their drinking behavior.

We rely heavily on George Maddox's idea of building community consensus on goals. I have a number of stories I wish I could tell you on the avoidance and ambivalence cited by our speakers this morning--exhibited by school boards, administrators, clergy, police, parents and other segments of the community we have worked with in trying to hammer out a common understanding for program planning.

Instead, I will tell you about one very limited attempt to evaluate our Division's experimental approach to alcohol education in schools. The study I will describe to you took place in response to an invitation from a principal of a suburban Catholic boys' high school to "Come and use our school as a laboratory to test out any ideas you like." We accepted his offer before he had a chance to change his mind, a research design was submitted to him and we were in business. ("We" also includes our Division's psychologist, and our researcher who is a social psychologist.)

We wanted to see whether small group discussions led by trained adults could have any effect on changing students' attitudes on drinking and drunkenness.

All junior students in this high school were randomly assigned either to experimental groups (small groups to discuss drinking) or control groups (small groups to discuss other topics like Vietnam, civil rights, birth control, etc.)

There were 12 alcohol discussion groups and 10 control discussion groups, with an average of 9 students in a group. The groups met for one period (40 minutes) each day for five consecutive days. Discussion group leaders on alcohol consisted chiefly of junior religion teachers--all brothers of the same religious teaching order. As part of our pact, the brothers participated in an 8-hour training program held one night a week for four weeks prior to the program--led by staff from the Division of Alcoholism.

To evaluate the program, students filled out questionnaires on drinking before the program began, at the end of the program and one month after the program was completed.

The questionnaire used is one developed by our researcher to help us evaluate results of our educational programs in terms of scores received on attitude scales. Two Likert scales are used: one scale measuring responsible use and one scale measuring irresponsible use or drunkenness. Both scales have been found to have satisfactory validity and reliability. A combination score computed by subtracting drunkenness scores from responsible use scores was also used.

Following are some examples of items in the responsible use scale with which subjects are asked to agree or disagree: (1) Alcohol used in moderation can be an important contribution to social relationships; and (2) The use of alcohol is a custom which should be abandoned by our society. Items in the drunkenness scale include statements like (1) A person who has never been tight or drunk is really missing a good thing; and (2) Getting drunk for kicks is part of growing up. Forty-two items comprised the attitude scales.

The questionnaire also included 17 items to measure knowledge about alcohol and alcoholism.

Now for some interpretation of the attitude scales: A high score on responsible use indicates that the respondent is tolerant of moderate (responsible) use of alcohol. A high score does not necessarily mean that the respondent thinks he himself should drink or that everybody should drink, but indicates that he recognizes that there is such a thing as responsible drinking and he does not condemn people who drink in this manner.

A high score on irresponsible use or drunkenness indicates that the respondent thinks excessive drinking or drunkenness is all right.

Since, as might be expected, the responsible use and drunkenness scales are fairly highly correlated, the combination scores computed by subtracting drunkenness scores from responsible use scores is the best measure of "healthy" attitudes toward drinking, in terms of our alcohol education philosophy. A high combination score means that the person scored high on responsible use, and low on drunkenness.

The aim of the program was to increase scores on the responsible use and combination scales, and to decrease scores on the drunkenness scale.

The data, not yet completely analyzed, indicate that the program was successful in terms of the stated goals. In the alcohol groups there were statistically significant increases on the responsible use and combination scales between the pre-test and the first post-test, and an almost statistically significant decrease on the drunkenness scale. Control groups showed no changes. The changes for the alcohol groups held up in the second post-test given one month after the program. On the second post-test the control groups showed significant changes in the wrong direction on the drunkenness scale (i.e., they increased).

Significant changes in knowledge took place in the experimental groups and no changes in the control groups--as measured by both post tests.

We know we were operating under ideal laboratory conditions in this study, perhaps difficult if not impossible to replicate--but its results have renewed our courage to continue in this field against odds which some days appear to be almost insuperable.

## DISCUSSION

DR. BACON: It seems to me that I see a real difference between what Dr. Todd said and what Miss DiCicco said as to the purpose. It seems to me that in the latter we were hearing that we want to change attitudes and information, and in the first one that we can at least all agree on a first central thing, which is to stop drunkenness or prevent drunkenness.

Now although it may be that, if you change the attitude, you change the drunkenness, it does seem to me that these are two rather different goals from the point of view of classroom activity planning and the like; and I am wondering if Dr. Todd sees there is any difference or if it is just pulled out of the blue academically.

DR. TODD: I don't think I see that difference. One of my beliefs is that if you can develop in an individual and attitude that drunkenness is the improper use or unsafe use, or it does not lead to happiness, and so forth, that this is attitudinally based in part on certain ground rules, as I use the term.

I don't feel that they are divergent, and again I think we have just a diversity within a given classroom, certainly within our total United States community--that a certain emphasis may be more fruitful in a given time in a given classroom in a given community than in another.

I don't feel they are divergent in any way. I feel they are both aspects.

DR. BACON: Seems to me, the educators are going to have to decide whether they are aiming towards changing attitudes and information or whether their real goal is changing behavior, or whether one leads toward the other; because isn't it at this point that the conflict between certain groups, church, family, and school, will come directly in?

I wonder if this isn't a problem for some school groups. Which are you intending to do?

DR. TODD: Do you think we have to make the choice?

DR. BACON: I think maybe the parents and the church groups and others will ask you to make that choice, or ask you not to make one of those choices.

DR. CONRAD: May I suggest putting it this way: that all groups are agreed on the goal. The teacher would, let us say, feel that the goal can be accomplished by the development of certain attitudes, and it is in the particular attitude that she generates that there may be some questions. Is that your point?

DR. BACON: I was asking if they are two different goals.

MR. LEWIS: May I call to your attention, Dr. Bacon, that we have here the East Coast, and with Dr. Todd we have the West Coast. Maybe Dr. Todd's approach on the West Coast is more easily received and will be more acceptable than the East Coast approach.

I think there is a difference. I really do. Because in Connecticut, I think we would be more aligned to the Massachusetts point of view than we would to the California point of view, and I would see this as a changing cycle as you go across the nation.

MR. HOLLODAY: Are you saying now it is all right to get drunk in Connecticut but it is wrong to get drunk in San Francisco?

MR. LEWIS: What we are doing is trying to slow the process down. When we get involved with parents and teachers, we talk in terms of trying to create parental involvement on one side, as well as education involvement on another side. We are attacking the problem here through these two sources.

Law here is not a deterrent. The minute you come to the conclusion that law is not a deterrent, you recognize that you are not going to stop it through law, that you have got to use a different approach. Let's see if parents can get their youngsters to slow down, and let's see if educators can get the students to think about slowing the process down.

DR. TODD: I think we can all agree on the goal of preventing or certainly slowing down, any use of alcohol that is uncontrolled. It is "bad" for an individual.

But I think the means are going to vary. I use various means in various classes. I have two sections of physiology 1, and because of differences between those two supposedly identical classes, I will use different approaches. I think perhaps this is--again getting back to the Federal involvement here--a smorgasbord type of thing needs to be made available countrywide.

MRS. MANN: Seems to me this discussion revolves around a placement in time. Before one changes behavior, it is necessary to change attitudes. So obviously the beginning is to change attitudes, out of which you hope will come changed behavior. This is why Dr. Hochbaum is asking what kind of studies had they made before to find out what changes had occurred after.

Well, there is only one thing that worried me about what Dr. Hochbaum said. These programs are designed--certainly Mr. Holloday's, and he was speaking right after that--for junior high school, which is 10, 11, 12 years old. I don't think they would be drinking before that. I really don't. And so I don't really see how you could do a before and after evaluation on their behavior about drinking. You might be able to on their attitudes toward drinking, what they know about it. But you aren't going to at that point--and we are talking about alcohol education at a quite early age. We almost have to talk about attitudes. We are not ready for behavior yet. It is only barely beginning. Certainly on evaluation we can't do it on behavior.

DR. CONRAD: I suppose there are exceptions to every rule, and I would suggest that normally attitudes do have something to do with behavior, although not always, as Dr. Hochbaum will now explain.

DR. HOCHBAUM: First, I would like to respond to this. I don't know how many of the 11-year-olds have already been drinking. I don't know what the statistics are. But there are ways of still evaluating changes in behavior, as has been done, for example, with respect to smoking, where you can predict according to certain data what the curve ought to be. In other words, you extrapolate from various ways how many you would expect to smoke at a certain age level; and if you find out in some schools where a smoking education program has been carried out that the curve falls below the expected level it is an approximation, but there are ways of doing it.

I think changes in attitudes are a reasonably good indication that some change has taken place, and as an effect of the program. In that sense, I think it is a good direction of evaluating. But although you said there is relationship between attitudes and behavior, the relationship is not a very close one, certainly much less close than we psychologists used to think at one time.

Kinsey has shown, for example, how very little relationship there is between attitudes toward certain sex practices and actual behavior. In smoking, we know from various national surveys that the overwhelming majority of Americans, including the smokers, have the kind of attitude that we would like to induce in them, but how much effect it has on smoking practice is open to question.

One other point, if I may take one more second. This kind of attitude scaling that was used here is very closely related to what the children learn in school. To some extent the answers they give to these kinds of questions are determined by what they know the correct answer is supposed to be. In other words, they may not be deliberately cheating, but they may give the answer which they know the teacher expects or the researcher expects be given.

So I am not trying to deny the entire validity. But I keep saying over and over again that a true evaluation has to relate to the purpose and objectives of our program.

If we set as our objective of an education program merely to change the information that students or the teachers have about drinking, then the best measure is to give them the test and find out how much they know before and after. If our objective is to change attitudes, then an attitude measure would be the criteria measure. But if our objective is to change the pattern of drinking behavior, then the only real good reliable measure will be to what extent has the pattern of drinking actually changed; not just in amount, but in the conditions under which drinking takes place, and so forth. I realize this is not easy to get, but it can be done.

MISS DICICCO: I couldn't agree with you more. In fact, we did put in several questions that would give us some measure of how much drinking and how many drunkenness episodes these kinds were undergoing. There was less than we expected. There was so little that I don't think it is even going to be measurable even in the one-month-post kind of thing. At least our researcher didn't think it was. And you know, granted the facilities, it was a practical decision. We would love to do a longitudinal kind of thing, and keep at it, and so forth, but this was the simplest thing we could do within the means we had.

DR. BRUYN: I am stimulated to do a triple take, following Dr. Silverman's double take on the predictability of the alcoholic, which I have now heard twice. I would like to hear what Mr. Holloday would say about the predictability in his study in the light of the current discussion that has been presented.

MR. HOLLODAY: Well, I think I would have to admit you would have a difficult time saying that in every case you would be able to determine whether this youngster is going to be an alcoholic. This isn't so. But you could say that with a continued pattern of behavior and activities, you could assume if he continued to do this, this youngster or this adult would very likely be an alcoholic. This was what I was talking about.

DR. BRUYN: What were some of the clues that led you to this prediction?

MR. HOLLODAY: I assumed if this youngster has a continuing drinking pattern which was a crutch--The particular youngster I had reference to was a very bright boy--I assumed that for some reason, he shied away from girls, and used alcohol in place of this. We had a terrible time with him, and he really loaded up.

Well, the thing that I could immediately see was how this affected his grades, his relationship to the school and to the home, and I am sure to the church and to the community. If he continued with this sort of activity, he would very likely be an alcoholic.

He was a real striking example, but you could pick out some other youngsters for whom this would also be true. You can pick out delinquents at a very early age, and I think you could do this with the potential alcoholic.

MR. HANNERS: Dr. Mary Jones has taken the Berkeley children's study and has gone back over it, about 30 years ago after she started it. She has been able to find exactly these same characteristics. That is, if they had been looking for them at that time, they could have identified these people who later on became alcoholics. All of them exceptional children, very bright, higher than average homes, and a very high rate of alcoholism.

If you haven't seen her study, Doctor, you might be interested in checking on that.

DR. MADDOX: I understand it is desirable to label people early in the interest of trying to intervene, but I personally take a dim view of taking the label of alcoholism and using it, I think, rather loosely on some youngster--saying we believe they are high risk. We suspect they are going somewhere and will be in trouble. But I think there are both practical and theoretical ones for avoiding the attachment of alcoholism, even using this word, on these youngsters.

I simply want to introduce a word of caution about using the word alcoholism to describe behavior of an 11 or 12 year old.

MR. HOLLODAY: He wasn't 11 or 12.

DR. CONRAD: We know the confirmed alcoholic who has a good deal of knowledge about alcohol and could give the right answers on a test quite conscientiously. Do you think there is any possibility that in the case of younger persons there is a closer relationship between expressed attitudes and expressed behavior, Dr. Hochbaum?

DR. HOCHBAUM: I have no reason to think so. But I don't know the answer.

DR. CONRAD: It would be worth investigating.

DR. HOCHBAUM: Perhaps among very young children. I would say yes, there is some evidence.

# TEACHER EDUCATION

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The process of learning about alcohol and its use as a beverage begins for the teacher, as it does for all, in the growing and developing that centers in home, church, school, and community--wherein there are interactions with adults who use, misuse, and do not use these beverages. The teacher may have been taught something about alcohol in his or her own junior or senior high school years--teaching, if it occurred at all, that probably was too brief and relatively non-memorable. The teacher may have taken a college course or two dealing with the subject, but, if so, it typically would have involved only a quick look at some aspect of problem behavior related to alcohol use. Teacher education courses (at least in health education) might add some insights, but the major source of any genuine understanding would come from independent, self-motivated study and reading or from some form of structured in-service education--a summer school, workshop, or during-the-year seminar.

The teacher, of course, remains an individual who has had certain personal interactions with alcoholic beverages and has made certain decision about personal use. The teacher's basic personal point of view tends to affect his or her teaching for the more the teacher sees drinking as problem behavior the more the teaching tends to focus on problems.

None of these experiences, however, has attempted to give the teacher a way to think about this subject--at least in the sense of a structure of the knowledge for the subject field. The School Health Education Study, a nationally-based, foundation supported research effort, has, during the past two years, been attempting to do this for the general subject field of which alcohol education is a part.

I am part of the Writing Team for this Study, and what follows is my interpretation of the "framework."

This approach takes seriously the WHO definition of health with its three dimensions of well-being, building the curriculum on the premise that situations, decisions, and issues involving the health of an individual are affected by the physical (the body), the mental-emotional (what a person knows and how he feels), and the social (how significant others react and advise).

Most importantly, for this particular subject area, the approach is not problem-centered, but is concept-centered. The primary thesis is not that alcohol is a problem, but that it is a part of human existence, and its use may produce various effects, some of which are defined as problems. Three key concepts tie all health areas together, forming the unifying theme of the curriculum; for alcohol use they can be expressed thusly (sacrificing completeness for conciseness): the Growing and Developing individual, probably during the teens, Interacts in such ways with others who use alcoholic beverages that drinking becomes a possible, personal behavior. The Decision to take a drink then brings about an Interaction with the beverage and new Interactions with the total experiment, including those who drink and those who do not. These Interactions require new Decisions, and this all becomes part of the continuing Growing and Developing process. The major concept to be developed for this area is that the Use of Alcoholic Beverages Arises from a Variety of Motivations, implying that what happens after drinking is most significantly related to the individual's reasons for drinking.

Another important learning for teachers is the relationship of facts and values in relation to alcohol use. No fact can be translated into an attitude or a direction for behavior without an accompanying, appropriate value. Most of the traditional values in this field have involved safety and the folly of risk-taking. However a teacher feels, personally, he or she should be able to recognize the values which accompany facts in the development of a concept.

Pre-service education of teachers has a certain advantage in having extrinsic combined with intrinsic motivations (in the form of grades), but has the disadvantage of no real teach context for the learners. In-service education has the advantage of building on experience and a real teaching context, but rarely has anything beyond the teacher's intrinsic motivation to encourage new learnings.

Both are necessary, and in being responsible for either those who teach teachers are going to have to experiment more and devise ever new ways to make new ideas non-threatening and appealing enough to affect--for the better--the way teaching in the schools is conducted.

### Discussion

DR. CONRAD: Dr. Russell, I wonder if you could make more specific some of the concepts that you feel are essential for this framework.

DR. RUSSELL: Yes, I would like to make clear at this point that here we are experimenting, we are trying to experiment with some evaluation which is relatively unique in education, I think. But we are motivated by the notion that we can't possibly cover all of these areas in the health curriculum and cover them in the way in which those who are most dedicated to their knowledge would have us do.

This is the hierarchy that George Maddox was talking about, even in the development of curriculum. So there is a presumption here which will be interesting to try to test out, that again it is consistent with other approaches; and that is if you can learn to think about this health area through certain topic areas, you don't have to cover them all, it gives you then a way of dealing with something that you haven't covered already.

Now this is a kind of pipe dream. Essentially, what we do now is simply attack every problem in its unique capacity, which means we are really saying it has very little to do with all these other problems, and therefore we have got to study all the problems separately and uniquely. This is absolutely impossible in the school. Therefore, the school's function is to try to develop a way of thinking about these areas of life. This is what they are, rather than problems. They are ways in which people behave, and the ways in which they behave sometimes are defined as problems.

For instance, we said our essential concept here is that the use of alcoholic beverages arises from a variety of motivations. We are using this term "use" as encompassing use and misuse and non-use. In other words, it is a generic use of "use."

Then one subconcept under this is that alcoholic beverages range from mild to strong and produce a variety of effects in individuals who use them, and even here we are trying to define mildness and strongness in relation to situations. So that saying beer is mild and whiskey is strong is only a beginning; actually, if you consume three quarts of beer in 20 minutes you have had strong drinking. If you have consumed a highball in two hours, you have had mild drinking.

So this is what we are trying to talk about, this situational sense of mild or strong, and that the effects produced are essentially related to the individual rather than to some kind of pattern that you begin to expect.

And secondly, we are saying that use of alcoholic beverages may result in health and safety problems. Here is one of the concepts on problems, but it is tucked in between this one on the effects; and the third one, that many factors and forces influence the use of alcoholic beverages.

DR. HOCHBAUM: You mentioned before that facts take on meaning in relation to something else. Now you brought out just now that one of the things you are concerned with, beer is weak and whiskey is strong, five drinks will do more than one drink. Well, how about the child who would like to get a little effect without the bad effects and he will say well, I will restrict myself to beer drinking or to one whiskey. How about the child to whom you teach the same facts and who says, "That is exactly what I want. I want to get drunk." So he will learn from you in a sense how to get his own wishes satisfied, his own desires satisfied in drinking the whiskey.

Wouldn't you have to teach in relation to the particular needs or wishes that the child or the adult wishes to satisfy?

DR. RUSSELL: Well, I would say there is a basic difference between counselling and education, unless you have a whole class of youngsters who have the same particular problem.

I think it goes back to the analogy you use in driver education. The driver educator who worries over the fact that Steve Trimble back there in the back is learning this and he looks like he is paying attention, but he is really going to go out and race his dad's car down the freeway--you know--he'd quit, he wouldn't teach, if he had those kinds of fears about how individual are going to distort.

You wouldn't make a speech if you thought, "One of those people out there is going to take what I say and take it back and change it all around and say, "Hochbaum said so and so." I won't say it. I won't take that chance." This is the sense of risk-taking that is involved in the whole matter of teaching.

DR. HOCHBAUM: I was not concerned with misinterpreting or misuse. You can't avoid that. But what I was trying to do is apply the one principle you talked about to what you said just now, that the meaning of whatever facts you tell them has to be defined in terms of the perceptions and needs of the person who learns the facts. So for the person who is looking to escape by getting drunk, instead of giving him the facts that by drinking three whiskeys he will get the effect more than by drinking one beer, the problem may become to find some other meaning for his needs, and we perhaps help him find some other way in which he can get whatever effect he wants by a way which is less destructive than a fifth of whiskey.

DR. CONRAD: Is this question in line with what you are saying, what is the use of teach these concepts if you don't at the same time do something with regard to the person's motivations and desires?

DR. HOCHBAUM: Exactly.

DR. CONRAD: Aren't you just constructing half a program, and the lesser half?

DR. RUSSELL: No, I would have to go to George Maddox's original concept here, that if the school expects to do the whole job, it is bound to fail. The school has to see itself in a particular relationship with the other forces of the community, other forces in the youngster's life, which also have some educational, informative function. The research thus far would indicate that the school has relatively the least influence upon behaviors and really the basic attitudes.

Therefore, I don't think it is the school's function to try to do all this, but to try to fulfill its function in the best way possible, to add its dimension to what needs to be done for each individual.

DR. MADDOX: While we are talking about the motivations, I would like for you to comment on the people I thought you would be talking about, namely, teachers. What has happened to the motivation of people who happen to be on the way to becoming teachers?

Do you sense any change in their interest in working in this area? In other words, what brings people to want to teach in this area?

DR. RUSSELL: Well, I don't know that I have enough perspective on this. I find, however, that teachers I have worked with are very interested in it. I have been using this approach with teachers in service. They have picked it up very easily and see sense in it.

DR. HEIN: I want to see if I understand what you are saying in response to Dr. Hochbaum's question. Are you saying that the role of the school is merely to supply information?

DR. RUSSELL: No, I would say the role of the school is to help the child develop concepts. Concepts are those understandings that influence behavior. Health education has never had a full place in the curriculum anyway. It is unlikely to get much more than it has. How can we utilize the time that we have? How can the school do what it can best do in any area? How can we encourage youngsters to think about and to understand how decisions affect the interactions that take place and are all part of the growing, developing process? ....

DR. YOHO: I can't help but observe years and years ago John Dewey said it is not our job to teach people what to do, but it is developing the kind of people that will know what to do. And so I think the point here is that we are talking about something that really isn't health education, but developing this ability and then somehow expecting the motivation to come, that once this is done that they will make the right decision.

DR. HOCHBAUM: May I be forgiven for taking one more moment? I am not quite sure what you mean by concept. It may be a misunderstanding. But there are some studies in ways of influencing behavior of human beings, particularly children, and there are some indications from research at Yale University, Michigan and others, that with adolescents in the middle and upper socio-economic level, whatever it is associated with--better education, higher intelligence, whatever it may be--that intellectual appeals to the good and official consequences of an action are more effective by and large, than emotional appeals that threaten consequences of not doing the right thing, while among children from the lower socio-economic level there is a tendency toward the opposite. The emotional fears of consequences, particularly if they are made very concrete, are more effective than the promise of some very beneficial long range effects.

It may have to do with the capacity to think in terms of syllogisms--if I do this, this would happened and this would happen--or with the concern about long range consequences as compared with immediate effects. Whatever it may be, I don't know how to interpret this. So it may be not only a matter of intellectual ability, but socio-economic ability and the kind of life that is associated with the lower socio-economic level than with others. And I do not believe general concepts--if I understand rightly what you mean by concepts--change one's behavior very much.

It may be in the area of mathematics, which is an unemotional activity, you don't get into trouble unless you don't know how to do it, that is it. But in the case of sex and smoking and drinking, I am not so sure. And I think these concepts take meaning on only if they fit in with what the person experiences every day.

If I may refer to a personal experience, when I went to school I learned and fully accepted the concept that when you have been drinking, when you are under the influence, that your judgment suffers, that your reaction time slows down. I knew it, and I believed it, and on every examination I gave the correct answer and got an A. But when I drove, that didn't apply to me because I knew whatever I had to drink--Cuba Libres or whatever I drank in those days--I knew, I could feel, that my judgment was sharper, my reaction time was faster. I knew it. So obviously it had a different effect on me than all the others.

But one little thing changed me. I took a course in experimental psychology and I had to conduct an experiment on reactions. I had to conduct it. I was not the guinea pig. And as part of the experiment, I took a drink--one drink--and I tested myself on the instruments. And although I was convinced, and wrote down that I had reacted faster, I found out according to the instrument I had not. I had reacted more slowly, and there were a number of other things. And this changed me, and now when I drive when I have been drinking, I drive very slowly. I keep my distance. I am very, very careful.... These concepts are fine, but they have to be tied in to some meaningful experience.

DR. RUSSELL: But you have also defined different learning experiences that you have had that changed your concepts as you went along.

DR. HOCHBAUM: The concept had to be anchored in personal experience and a meaningful experience to me, and evidently this applies to me.

DR. RUSSELL: But there are some other things that you do or don't do that are not anchored in personal experience.

DR. LONG: It has been most interesting listening to all these different concepts, but I am quite confused right now. We are talking about concepts, attitudes. They don't change behavior as such. We in education, I think, are interested in how are we going to change behavior so that the youngster will not get to this point of excessive drinking or not the proper use of drinking.

So I think we need to get back to this idea of what are we going to do with these youngsters that we are trying to help. Are we going to give them knowledge, are we going to give them concepts, are we going to try to change their attitudes? What are we going to do?

I thought the purpose of this conference was to sort of come to an understanding so that we can now go back and say we are confused, or let's get back to this and do something else.

DR. CONRAD: Perhaps we have to do all of these things.

## ALCOHOL EDUCATION IN CONNECTICUT

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In almost all the fifty states, the law gives a mandate to the public schools: Teach about alcohol. The effort and enthusiasm going into, and the results of, alcohol education, naturally vary in each state.

In Connecticut, The State Department of Education has much the same problems as other states -- but we have some unique advantages too.

The most outstanding feature of this now is the way three governmental bodies are each reenforcing the others and coordinating their work for an increase in total emphasis on alcohol education. In fact it is part of our philosophy that alcohol education is a multi-sided activity which involves and requires the participation of educators, legislators, community leaders as well as specialized professional personnel in a variety of approaches, and that because of its interrelatedness the programs must be coordinated.

A quick snapshot or polaroid picture of Connecticut shows a state with a Department of Education which has a generalized legal responsibility for alcohol education, a Department of the Mental Health with specialized treatment and educations services administered through its Alcoholism Division, still other major departments with welfare and law enforcement functions, and a special Study Commission of the legislature. Each recognizes its own unique responsibilities and is familiar with the others. – yet each supplements and strengthens the work of the others in an active working relationship for a total state approach.

This is where we are now. But this posture by no means sprang into being overnight. We are fortunate, for example, that Yale University pioneered a modern approach to the problems of alcoholism back in the 30's, and chose to present its findings through a Summer School on Alcohol Studies in the 1940s. The Department of Education cooperated in this school, and as an outgrowth developed a prototype of a modern approach to alcohol education for schools in a State Curriculum Bulletin in 1949. A state Commission on Alcoholism also grew out of Yale's efforts. This later incorporated into the State Department of Mental Health and is now that department's Alcoholism Division.

Over the past twenty-five years, a close, harmonious working relationship has developed many joint efforts. For example:

1. One of the first projects of the early Commission on Alcoholism and the State Department of Education was to place a basic library of reference books and materials in all public and school libraries. This was financed through the Commission funds.

2. The health educator in the Alcoholism Division has worked closely with the Department of Education in developing materials and in acting as a resource for schools. The Alcoholism Division maintains a film library for school and community use, and is the central source of alcohol literature for the state.

3. The Department of Health, The Alcoholism Division and the Department of Education have served as a leadership team for a pilot in-service workshop for teachers on Alcohol, Narcotics and Smoking.

4. We are presently engaged in a joint effort to revise the State Curriculum Bulletin (which also will be published jointly).

5. We are currently exploring the possibilities in new instructional media such as single-concept films.

Over the years the Department of Education has come to rely more and more on the Educational Section of the Alcoholism Division for in-depth services to the schools. They in turn clear all school efforts and materials with the Department of Education. As mentioned earlier, the Department of Education has a broad responsibility for a comprehensive program of Health Education in schools and sees Alcohol Education as an integral part -- but also must keep it in perspective with other equally important aspects of health education. We are fortunate in having the support and understanding of the total school program from our co-workers in the Alcoholism Division.

One of the most important developments in alcohol education in Connecticut in recent years has been the establishment of a study commission by the General Assembly in 1961. The original purpose of the Teenage Liquor Law Coordination Commission was to persuade New York State to raise its minimum drinking age to twenty-one. Efforts in this direction, as we all know, have been unsuccessful – but other, newly-adopted functions of the Commission have been most productive within our borders. The Commission, now the Teenage Alcohol Use Study Commission, has made a broad study of teenage drinking situation in Connecticut, calling on a wide variety of state and voluntary agencies. The Department of Education, for example, was asked to make a survey of the status of alcohol education in schools -- and the illuminating results have prompted the first change in the alcohol education law since its inception in the late 1800's. This Commission, through its recommendations to the General Assembly, has become a true catalytic agent in activating our most recent team efforts.

As we see our school problems now, they seem to resolve around five major needs:

1) helping teachers to be "comfortable" in teaching about alcohol,
2) putting in our teachers' hands the very best of materials -- textural and audiovisual,
3) adapting today's new teaching methods to the subject area of alcohol education,
4) better preparing and utilizing the counseling services of the schools to assist individual students who are starting to have drinking problems, and
5) substantially upgrading the curriculum for the well-informed students in the last two years of high school.

This is but a "snapshot", a picture of a state which has developed a means for coordinating a total state approach. Out of this collaborative effort is evolving not only a broad-based alcohol education program in our schools, but the active involvement of other agencies and community leaders which we think will be felt in other areas of coping with alcohol problems.

### Discussion

MR. LEWIS: For the record, and I direct myself again to HEW, the survey that was made of the 178 Connecticut school superintendents reported that of that number 144 felt they needed better visual aids, that better visual aids should be developed; 130 felt that better resource units should be developed.

Now it strikes us that this is an area where the Federal government and this Department could give some leadership, and we would very much like to urge the Department to come forward here.

We have looked at the particular subject matter. We find that we don't have the funds. It may be hundred thousand, a hundred and fifty thousand. We thought in terms of going to the licensed beverage industries and asking them to prepare, subject matter and then we felt that if they sponsored it, conceivably we would have problems using it throughout the state. The net result is that we feel that here is an area where the Federal government can give leadership, and leadership is very, very necessary, as indicated earlier by Dr. Todd.

DR. SILVERMAN: Is it your feeling, sir, that materials prepared for Connecticut to meet Connecticut specifications would in most cases meet the specification of the other 49 states?

MR. LEWIS: No doubt about it. There is a need for visual aids to help the teacher present the subject matter. We find the subject matter is not necessarily being presented well because first, the teacher doesn't know how to present if well; and secondly, he doesn't have an aid, a demonstrative aid with which to present it.

We feel that leadership in this regard would be of enormous benefit. Again we go back to what we talked about earlier with Dr. Bacon – trying to reduce, trying to slow the process. We feel that if an approach were taken in direction, it would be an enormous help.

I would think we would need three films; one for the students; second, for the adults. I do a lot of public speaking to civic groups; we have had programs, church programs; we are trying to create parent involvement. We would like very much to have a film which we could use in this regard.

And lastly, I think you need a film to instruct in-service teachers so that they would know how to present the subject. Again Dr. Byler through her offices could have instruction programs for teachers in the heath field to teach this subject with a modern approach.

We have given serious thought of going to the Ford Foundation; but knowing that this program was going to be presented today, my Commission which met yesterday instructed me to make sure that we presented this to you.

MISS DICICCO: I am not one to turn down help if Uncle Sam wants to finance a film, but I would not like to leave the impression that tools like films, curriculum teaching guides, or any more material are going to get at the core of what we are faced with right now.

DR. CONRAD: It might help quite a bit.

MISS DICICCO: I am not sure because I don't know who will be using these materials and toward what end, and how much unanimity we have.

DR. CONRAD: Well, maybe if Dr. Russell would pay a little more attention to use of films and less to concepts--

DR. RUSSELL: Films are a good way of developing concepts.

DR. CONRAD: The ideal combination.

## THE COLLEGE TEACHER

Doris Sands
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The "adolescent-young adult" is a unique title for a large segment of our population. We aren't even sure how to classify this group, what to call them. The words bring to mind a composite of the upper teen age group and because it is our habit to associate maturity with this end of the youth spectrum we often expect more of this group than they are capable of producing.

We are all aware that each individual reflects his own emotional capacity, his varied discipline training and his cultural, traditional religious and educational background which have molded his opinions and his attitudes. The locale of his home has influenced his sophistication or lack of it and his individual personality reacts unpredictably to all of these pressures. He is at variance with his own beliefs in many of his daily experiences. His self-image - how he sees himself - affects his behavior in each new situation. Will he participate, will he withdraw, shall he risk his newly found and needed prestige when he makes a new decision.

This is the young person who arrives at the college experience level and adds to his emotional burden the pressures of the expectations of his peers, his parents and his professors. He needs to prove his individuality, he desires recognition for his own accomplishments yet is afraid he will fail. His ideas and prejudices are pretty well ingrained often complicated by confusion, misinformation and inaccuracies.

The college level is too late to begin alcohol education. Our situation is compounded by the lack of early discussions on the lower levels, and students find themselves faced with the decision of whether or not to drink but unarmed with facts. And whether or not the facts have been taught they have an almost total lack of understanding of the sociological implication of indulging in excesses as well as a concomitant lack of knowledge of the emotional involvement. This is not applied specifically to alcohol only. Sex, smoking, narcotics--the so-called controversial issues all elicit the same confusion and often rebellion against the organized rules of society. It isn't enough to say premarital sex is wrong; that is gives rise to guilt feelings, to poor psychological adjustment in personal relationships, that it threatens society. The same goes for drinking at age 18 or 19 in a suddenly found freedom. The student needs to know the how and why, the effects of any behavior in order to make his value judgments. You can't teach about alcohol or any other area without the ethical, moral and social values they include.

The college community is a meeting place for many sub-groups in our culture. For the first time the majority are away from direct parental influence. In the years immediately prior the student had the comfort of being in his familiar sphere, surrounded by people just like him for the most part. Suddenly he is confronted by an overwhelming diversity of personalities and

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problems with demands that must be solved by him alone.

I questioned a group of students recently on their attitudes toward drinking. The girls rarely like the taste of alcohol and drink for the most part to be social. Some were distressed by the lack of concern for them by their dates. It got down to the basic fact of who would take them home if the date was unable to drive? A few of the males were unconcerned as someone would always take over for them. Now this in no way reflects the majority's views, but on the educational level we must be concerned with all the views. Involved here are teachings of social behavior, dating responsibilities, an evaluation of the motives behind drinking.

Many adults have one set of rules for themselves and another for their children. The young are quick to emphasize this. Most realize that adults do have certain privileges not available to youth but the basic rules of honesty and integrity and morality must still apply.

The youngster who is promiscuous, who drinks to excess, who courts notoriety yearns for rules he understands and a feeling of belonging to someone or some group. And equally the one who refuses to understand that these behavior patterns do exist and reflect a need for greater understanding and examination is lacking in his sociological participation. For years fear was a motivating factor in teaching health, emphasizing the negative side. Today we use the positive approach of teaching concepts as well as the factual material, driving toward mature emotional response and evaluation and the relationship of both in decision making.

One of my students--all of 18 years--volunteered the observation that today's world offers little opportunity for individual expression! Whether he is correct or not in his assessment is one thing, but does he really think is true? Or is he immature and unable to weigh the possibilities for himself?

My wish is for a universal educational program that presents the facts and the concepts long before the college age. Then at this level we can examine the responsibilities and privileges that come with adulthood. In a few years our students will make many judgments under varying circumstances and frequently without opportunity to study the choices with much deliberation. But if they are taught to seek the truth and weigh the evidence each decision will be permanent learning experience.

Recently I was involved in a discussion of alcohol education in the schools. The difficulties in planning are complicated by the attitudes of the teaching staff. There is a noticeable lack of interest on the part of some teachers because alcohol "... is out of our subject area" and secondly, because it is a controversial issue and these involvements are dangerous! The administration and community must educate, and support the staff and encourage those teachers whose attitudes make them particularly suited to the task.

### Discussion

VOICE: Do you think the circumstances are different in a large university than a small one?

MRS. SANDS: No, I don't think the circumstances are different. I think you have a greater problem in that you don't have the daily contact, you don't know as much about your student because he is too busy, and so are you. I deplore this. I don't think we know enough about our students, if they have a problem, you don't know unless they come back. I think this is the biggest frustration of all.

MR. LEWIS: Do they allow drinking on the campus?

MRS. SANDS: No. In fact, we just had quite a big hassle where the president of the men's group was taken out of office because he didn't report a drinking incident fast enough. We don't allow it on the campus at all.

DR. BACON: You said they don't allow drinking. Does that also include beer?

MRS. SANDS: Yes. No alcoholic beverage.

DR. BACON: In some universities, only intoxicating beverages are banned, and beer isn't intoxicating so it gets in.

VOICE: You might be interest in knowing Missouri law defines by legislation that beer is not an intoxicant. So it has the sanctity of law.

VOICE: I have wanted to ask this all day. In all the legislative scene, there is a linkage between alcohol, narcotics and smoking. I look at the curriculum guides. There is a linkage between alcohol, narcotics and smoking. I look at the textbooks, and the same linkage. Does this have a bad effect from the standpoint of association of the three, and cause certain misconceptions in the minds of teachers, youngsters and others?

DR. TODD: Very definitely. I think we have to make a sort of concerted movement to get away from this in any present or future publications.

You are dealing with narcotics, which--except under medical prescription--are illegal, brought in by the underworld; and alcohol, which is legal in many states and circumstances. In the case of smoking, we now have a rather large and mounting body of evidence as to harmful potentials, but in the case of moderate use of alcohol there is little such evidence, if any. I think you are talking about things that have just a few baselines in common, such as--they aren't for youngsters, they aren't for the immature, they need to be controlled, and they have dangerous potentials. But we could also add to that list a whole list of other commodities, if you will.

VOICE: Doesn't that linkage come from all those laws that were written between 1860 and 1890?

VOICE: That is exactly right.

VOICE: And we never stopped to break them up.

VOICE: And you can hardly publish a textbook unless you have this linkage.

MISS DICICCO: I would like to say that the content, too, hasn't varied that much from that of the 1890's. Some texts that are very good in other areas have not really changed basically. The most blatant misinformation is repeated from book to book.

DR. CONRAD: Time is growing short. I would like to thank the speakers and also the participants.

I will turn the meeting back to Dr. Silverman.

## CONCLUSION

Milton Silverman, Ph.D.
Special Assistant to the Assistant Secretary
for Health and Scientific Affairs

Normally this is the end of the conference. Our grateful appreciation goes to all the participants, to the Office of Education for doing more than its share to make it possible, to the other agencies of HEW which collaborated and especially to two people, Elsa Schneider of the Office of Education and Edward Sands of the Secretary's Office, for their help.

If this were actually the end of the conference, the conference itself would be a total failure, and most of us would have wasted most of our time. But I am hopeful that what we did today marks only another beginning, that it will be followed by a good many more conferences, formal and informal, in your own towns and offices and your own homes, which will carry on from where we are stopping temporarily, here tonight.

We are hopeful that you will send us your advice and your counsel on the role that can best be played by Federal and state agencies, on what government can do to help you do your job.

And on this note I would like to add my own humble but very warm thanks to those of the President and the Department of Health, Education and Welfare. We are grateful to all of you for coming. We wish you Godspeed back home.

The meeting is adjourned.

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### IMPLICATIONS FROM RESEARCH ON ADOLESCENT DRINKING

1. Merton. R. Social theory and Social Structure, the Free Press, Glencoe. 1957, pp 283-284.
2. Cohen. A. E. Youth and the Social Order, University of Indiana press, Bloomington. 1965. p.Xii.
3. New York State Legislature. A Report to the Joint Commission on Alcoholic Beverages Control of the New York State Legislature. (Summary) New York. 1962, (Mimeographed).
4. Parsons. T., Age and Sex in the Social Structure of the United States. American Sociological review, 7: 604-616. 1942.

### ALCOHOL EDUCATION: CLUES FROM RESEARCH

1. "Research Relating to Alcohol Education: A Review and Some Suggestions" selected papers presented at the 15th Annual meeting of the North American Association of Alcoholism Program, Portland. Oregon. 1964.

### SOME CLUES FROM RESEARCH

1. U.S.P.H.S.-NIMH 05655.
2. New Jersey State Department of Health Contract No. 342E.
3. The terminology is adopted from Kalin. McClelland and their associates. The present treatment is based on the work of Dr. Robert Zucker. Associate Professor. Psychology. Center of Alcoholics Studies. Rutgers - The State University.

## CONFERENCE ON "ALCOHOL EDUCATION" MARCH 29, 1966

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# DRUG EDUCATION: AN AWAKENING.
# A REPORT OF THE NEA TASK FORCE ON DRUG EDUCATION
*(ED065804)*
1972

## PROLOGUE

### The Teacher and Drug Education

Questions relating to drug usage have been intensively studied from the viewpoints of health, law, social conditions, and education. The findings and the recommendations have been widely disseminated, and nearly every agency of federal, state, and local government has become involved in endeavoring to treat, cure, punish, or educate those who illegally or intemperately use drugs.

That few of the approaches to illicit or intemperate drug usage have had widespread effect is all too apparent. Alleged increases in drug use seem to keep pace with increased efforts at restraint.

To those who have examined closely the drug culture of the United States, it is apparent that the approach to drug education must be considered in terms of social context. Excessive–but legal–drug usage is as much a symptom of individual difficulties in coping with a changing and complicated social structure as is illegal usage.

The problem of drug usage in the United States by both children and adults is complicated by the problem of misuse as well as prescribed use of many drugs; by physiological and/or psychological dependence on drugs. Alcohol and tobacco dependency ranks as the most critical drug problem in the United States. The national controversy over marijuana is a controversy over the use of an illegal, nonaddictive drug. The Task Force has given attention to–and its recommendations reflect–concern for drug misuse, not only for the use of marijuana and the so-called "hard drugs."

Because the problem of drug misuse has reached critical proportions in the United States, the federal government has taken on a major national leadership role in drug education. Over the next five years, various agencies of the federal government will spend more than a quarter of a billion dollars in educational, rehabilitation, and research efforts. The fixed focus of federal or state or local programs is, however, on the individual at leisure, at work, at school, or at home in his own neighborhood.

Making certain that the federal government provides wise leadership and that local school districts provide effective educational experiences is too great a task for each teacher to undertake on his own. But, as a member of the United Teaching Profession, teachers have a right to look to their national, state, and local professional associations to insist both that authorities who are responsible for educational programs discharge those responsibilities effectively and that teachers are appropriately involved in making the educational decisions that they, as teachers, will be called on to implement.

–The Task Force

## DEFINITIONS USED BY THE NEA TASK FORCE ON DRUG EDUCATION

I. **Drugs:** a pharmacological definition

Any substance which by its chemical nature alters the structure or function of a living organism.

(Not all drugs are medicines, but all medicines contain drugs. Some substances that are not ordinarily thought of as drugs–e.g., glue, paint thinner, aerosol propellants–are being used as if they were drugs, even though this is not the marketed intent of the product.)

II. **Drug Dependency:** a definition

Any physiological and/or psychological dependency on drugs.

III. **Drug Use:** a definition

The taking of a substance responsibly and in the appropriate amount, frequency, strength, and manner.

IV. **Drug Misuse:** a definition

The taking of a substance inappropriately and in an amount, frequency, strength, or manner that is likely to result in damage to the user's health or his ability to function.

V. **Drug Education:** a definition

A learning process that influences an individual emotionally, intellectually, psychologically, and socially, and that may result in the modification of attitudes that influence behavior. It not only involves the formal mechanism of presenting information but also includes a series of experiences and influences that help shape the learning environment - the atmosphere of the school, the life-style present at home, the attitude of parents, the pressures within a peer group, the popular culture, the personal experiences with or without drugs, and the availability of alternative mechanisms employed to carry out certain kinds of behavior.

An effective drug education program provides –

- A positive self-concept.
- A workable value system that includes the acceptance of the values of others.
- Skills for intelligent decision making.
- Skills for adequate communication.
- Awareness of outside influences on decisions.
- Awareness of alternative to chemicals as a means of recreation or of handling stress situations.

## SOME FACTS ABOUT MARIJUANA

Since marijuana is at the center of much of the controversy over drug misuse, some facts about it, as of 1971, have been made a part of this report:

- ...24 million Americans over the age of 11 years...have used marijuana at least once...[1]
- Twenty-nine percent of the adults and 43% of the youth (who have ever used marijuana) reported that they are still using marijuana...[2]
- The experimenter and the intermittent users develop little or no psychological dependence on the drug.[3]
- ...the immediate effects of marijuana intoxication on the individual's organs or bodily functions are of little significance...these effects...are transient and have little or no permanent effect upon the individual.[4]
- ...no substantial evidence (exists) of a causal connection between the use of marijuana and the commission of violent or aggressive acts.[5]
- The fact should be emphasized that overwhelming majority of marijuana users do not progress to other drugs.[6]
- At the state level, where enforcement of the possession laws is focused, about 93% of the arrests...were for this (possession) offense.[7]
- ...the trend (of law enforcement) is undoubtedly to invoke the marijuana possession laws only when the behavior (possession) comes out in the open.[8]

## STATUS OF DRUG EDUCATION

The National Education Association's Task Force on Drug Education, in its visits to schools throughout the country, found deplorable situations in the area of drug education. While a few notable exceptions do exist, some of the most glaring poor practices could be listed as:

- Failure of both administrators and teachers to recognize the existence of a problem – either because of an inability to recognize symptoms or because of a reluctance to face the program consequences of problem definition
- A general lack of concern by local and state teachers associations, as well as complete absence of clarity as to the appropriate role of teachers associations in drug education
- Poor screening of materials for use in education programs
- Archaic methods of teaching drug education
- Misinformation disseminated by uninformed people

- Poor communication between students and school staff
- Exclusive relegation of drug education to a particular course for a specified period of time
- Absence of legal confidentially between students and professional school staff
- Ineffective use of funds for implementation of programs both in schools and in the community
- Absence of student and parental participation in the development and implementation of drug education programs
- Failure of educational leadership to work cooperatively with other organizations that seek to improve drug education.

## RECOMMENDATIONS

### I. Responsibility of State and Local Education Associations

Goal:

To strengthen and clarify the role of state and local education associations in influencing the development and implementation of effective programs of drug education designed to meet the needs of the community, the school, and the student.

Rationale:

As a member of a professional association, the teacher has the power to bring about change through group action. The fact that the teacher has this power has been amply and frequently demonstrated in the economic area. Only now, however, is the potential power of the organized teaching profession to bring about change in areas of social and educational reform being recognized.

An important adjunct of this power is the highly sophisticated communication network that has been created by the professional associations to bind teachers within communities, within states, and across the country.

The Task Force on Drug Education looks to state and local associations to help lead the way in influencing state and local school authorities to develop educational climates favorable for humanistic education and to provide rational programs of drug education.

**Recommendations**

1. For the Local Association:

We urge the establishment of drug education committees in every local education association. These committees should be given the responsibility of:

a. Gathering information about drug information and making this available to members of the association.

b. Assisting in presenting both to the public and to school authorities the need for a curriculum that reflects the societal need for humanistic education. Where drugs are involved, both preventative and alternative courses of action should be given emphasis.

c. Representing to local education authorities the importance of including students, teachers, and parents in the development of drug education programs.

2. For the State Association:

We urge the establishment of drug education committees at the state level with the following functions:

a. Initiation and support of legislative action that improves education or the educational climate -- i.e., funding, confidentiality, etc.

b. Defense of the right of due process for suspected, alleged, or actual violations of criminal codes for all those involved in education

c. Support of local associations in their attempts to develop educational climates favorable for humanistic education

d. Development of guidelines for in-service education workshops for teachers – funded from federal, state, or local funds – that emphasize mental health concepts and communication skills

e. Assistance to local associations in implementing the NEA guidelines proposed in this report (see Recommendation II, Quality of Drug Education Programs) for the development of drug education policy

f. Assistance in facilitating a two-way flow of information about drug information between the NEA and local associations

## II. Quality of Drug Education Programs

Goal:

To develop criteria for the implementation and evaluation of drug education programs which would be revised, reevaluated, and updated at regular intervals.

Rationale:

Many programs have been developed by administrators and/or counselors and teachers without any input from the lay public and/or students or school nurses, all of whom are essential to the development of a successful drug education program.

During the field studies, members of the Task Force found a total lack of concern among the local teachers associations. They were not interested in becoming involved in influencing the quality control of this segment of the curriculum and, in most cases, felt it was not the prerogative of the local association to deal with this subject.

The Task Force found the greater percentage of existing drug education programs to be superficial and educationally poor. Some of the programs, because of false statements made by misinformed or uninformed educators, could very well have contributed to the increase in drug usage in this society. Much money is being wasted on poor materials and misinformation – often worse than no information at all.

### Recommendation

The NEA should, in cooperation with other public and private agencies such as the U.S. Office of Education's Drug Abuse Program and the constituent agencies of the National Coordinating Council on Drug Education (a private agency), develop guidelines for the identification of those parts of existing drug education programs that are successful, and for the evaluation of drug education program content. Local and state associations, lay community members, school nurses, and especially students should be involved in evaluating programs. Perhaps, rather than giving tacit approval to materials acquired, students might act as an evaluation team. This might be a means of getting students involved and could serve to break down barriers since all are seeking valid information.

Drug education programs that do not pass the evaluative criteria should not be used but should instead be replaced by other methods.

## III. Drug Policies in Schools

Goal:

To have the NEA develop guidelines for uniform drug policies in schools.

Rationale:

School drug policies are often developed without full involvement of appropriate groups. Too often drug policies inhibit effective drug education by –

- Dictating what should be taught.
- Requiring that all drug user information be reported (whether truth or rumor).
- Causing persons to be placed in compromising situations when dealing with drug involvement.

Present school policies often punish an individual with little regard for other penalties already imposed by civil authority. Policies are frequently implemented in haste to ensure smooth operation of the institution, jeopardizing the rights and dignity of those involved in the drug situation.

Drug misuse should be considered a health problem, not a police problem. Policies should ensure proper disposition of cases involving any school personnel, teachers, students, custodians, secretarial help, and others who may be involved.

### Recommendations

1. The NEA executive secretary should be authorized to take the steps required to commission a study on drug policies in schools, and particularly the legality and/or constitutionality of these existing drug policies as they pertain to double jeopardy.
2. The NEA should advise state and local associations of guidelines developed for drug policies in the schools.
3. The NEA should assume an active role in training representatives of state and local associations to negotiate the development and implementation of responsible drug policies in the schools.

## IV. Confidentiality

Goal:

To create schools that operate in an atmosphere in which communication can be shared openly among all persons involved and that at the same time protect persons to whom information is given in confidence.

Rationale:

Educators and auxiliary staff are often threatened by legal implications resulting from their interaction with students. This threat generally arises out of the conflict between educational and legal ramifications and interpretations of a problem.

In most cases, the best course for all concerned is to share all information. However, the Task Force is aware that, in some instances, withholding of information would aid in solving the problems of the persons involved. The Task Force also agrees that the concept of confidentiality has not been thoroughly researched in terms of legality and desirability.[9]

### Recommendation

In light of our concern, we strongly recommend that the NEA take the leadership in convening a committee composed of representatives of agencies and organizations involved in areas of confidentiality in order to develop a policy of statement and recommend action relating to problems of confidentiality in educational institutions.

## V. Selection of Materials

Goal:

To establish criteria for the selection of materials used in drug education programs.

Rationale:

The Task Force feels that the NEA, as the nation's leading professional organization of teachers, should and must demand that quality, not quantity, be the criteria for the selection of materials to be used in the nation's classrooms.

The Task Force feels that the NEA has taken few, if any, steps to provide criteria for screening and evaluating materials on drug education. Because of this failure, much false material has been produced for and used in drug education with widespread indiscretion in schools across the nation.

Commercial agencies have taken advantage of the concern caused by the emergence of the drug problem and have produced and sold much material without thought of quality. The Task Force feels that use of false, poor, emotionally oriented, and judgmental materials is more harmful than no materials and is not indicative of the NEA's desire for high-level education materials.

The Task Force further feels that drug education is a vital part of the school curriculum, and because of the mental, physical, social, and emotional implications involved in drug usage, special emphasis must be placed on the validity of materials used in the classroom or in community centers.

### Recommendations

1. All materials dealing with drug education that are published or distributed by the NEA or its department, national affiliates, and associated organization should be cross-checked by an evaluating agency – e.g., the constituent agencies of the National Coordinating Council on Drug Education or other such reputable agencies – designated by the NEA. Articles written and/or published by the NEA must also be validated by such agencies. The NEA should also make every effort to keep the membership informed of those materials that are approved by the NEA and to call attention to those that are highly unacceptable.
2. The NEA should, through cooperation with existing screening agencies, ensure accurate, informative, unbiased through material in every area of the education spectrum.

## VI. Teacher Preservice and In-Service Training

Goal:

To influence teacher training institutions and in-service departments to develop programs that involve awareness of self-concept, values, and communication.

Rationale:

The presence of drug misuse among all levels of our society is a symptom of a deeper problem – i.e., individuals are not equipped to handle stress situations because they lack –

- A positive self-concept.
- A workable value system that includes the acceptance of the values of others.
- Skills for intelligent decision making.
- Skills for adequate communication.
- Awareness of outside influences on decisions.
- Awareness of alternatives to chemicals as a means of recreation or of handling stress situations.

Teacher training institutions should, therefore, develop programs and establish courses to help the prospective teacher know himself and develop criteria for use in knowing others, and to aid him in developing an understanding approach in any subject he teaches. Further, no teacher trainee should leave an institution of higher education without being aware of the drug problem among students or the methods that might be used in a drug education program.

In-service programs should provide the experienced teacher with the know-how and the tools for teaching about drugs at any point of the educational spectrum. Stricter screening of teachers, both those in training and those already teaching, should be implemented to prevent those who are incapable of helping students develop healthful attitudes from entering or remaining in the profession.

Fortunately, the NEA is committed to helping teachers play a relevant role in the continuing professional education of its members. It has decided that this can effectively be accomplished through the seminal activities of several National Teacher Centers sponsored by the NEA.

### Recommendations

1. The NEA, working with the student NEA and other appropriate groups, should utilize the National Teacher Centers to take the lead in developing preservice and in-service training programs that will influence teach training institutions to center their programs around a human values approach.

2. The NEA should develop guidelines for an in-service drug education training program which could be used by state or local education associations or individual school districts. The guidelines should be so designed as to encourage teachers to see the need -- and have the know-how -- to deal with drug use and misuse through a dignified, human approach. Such guidelines might be patterned to -

    a. Utilize consultants and students from existing programs that use this type of approach.
    b. Develop follow-up programs.
    c. Develop tools for evaluation of the program.

3. The NEA, in cooperation with other agencies, should develop a list of drug education consultants available to work with teacher training institutions and in-service departments.

## VII. Accommodation to Cultural Patterns

Goal:

To work toward the development of drug education materials, curriculums, and methods of instruction that take into account linguistic and cultural differences.

Rationale:

In many parts of the country the lack of mastery of the English language prevents minority groups from receiving needed information when that information is produced in only one language for only one culture. In addition, many individuals are literate in English but live in communities where life patterns are influenced by subcultures that differ in varying degrees from the prevailing national culture. Perhaps, because of other social, political, and economic barriers, the need for bilingual, multicultural drug education programs may be even greater than in areas that are not confronted with these situations.

### Recommendations

1. The NEA must concern itself with the education of all segments of society. It should encourage the production and dissemination of drug education materials and information that are presented in more than one language and that take into account cultural concepts of the people of a particular area.

2. In those areas of the country where there is a blending of two languages or cultures, multiple representation should be utilized in the interpretation of drug education programs in the schools and in the community.

3. The Task Force supports the findings of the NEA Council on Human Rights' conference on bilingual instructional materials and urges that these be communicated to publishers of drug education materials.

## VIII. Administration of Prescribed Medication in Schools

Goal:

To establish a means for the development of policy and procedures for the administration of drugs to students during school hours that will assure the accuracy as prescribed.

Rationale:

Many children are able to attend school regularly because of the effective use of medication in the treatment of chronic disabilities or illnesses, either physical or emotional. Although medication should be administered at home, effectiveness dictates that some drugs be taken at school.

Parental concern about apparently healthy children who are "completely unmanageable" and unable to succeed academically has forced physicians and school personnel to collaborate and try to create conditions that would make it possible for this type of child to learn.

We found much concern on the part of doctors, school nurses, and teachers that educators may be indiscriminately recommending the use of drugs to modify behavior.

### Recommendations

1. The Task Force recommends that a joint committee be formed including members from the following agencies: the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation; the NEA Department of School Nurses; the NEA; the American Medical Association; and other appropriate agencies. This committee should consider the problems involved in administering prescribed medication to students in schools. Among the problems that we believe the joint committee should consider are:
    a. The desirability of having school health service personnel responsible for the administration and control of drugs dispensed during school hours
    b. The establishment of a more definitive diagnostic procedure for diagnosis of hyperkinesis and learning disabilities
    c. The desirability of establishing a regular follow-up program including consultation with school nurses, physicians, parents, and teachers for children who are on behavior-modification drugs
    d. The desirability of enacting regulations in elementary schools that would require that the first dose of any behavior-modification drug be given by the school nurse.
2. The Task Force recommends the establishment or continuation of an ongoing liaison among –
    a. The NEA Department of School Nurses,
    b. The School Health Division of the AAHPER, and
    c. The Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the NEA and the American Medical Association.
3. We recommend the establishment of guidelines pertaining to the facilitation of communication among parents, educators, school health personnel, and physicians concerning the administration of prescribed medication in the schools.

## IX. Standardization of Drug Laws

Goal:

To standardize drug laws.

Rationale:

...one of the greatest needs in the entire drug area is uniformity of state laws with regard to structure and penalties. While this recommendation applies to all drugs and not just marijuana, we feel it essential to make this recommendation now to help de-emphasize the marijuana problem. Significant differences in penalties among the states constitute a valid source of irritation and conflict among various segments of our population. In an age of higher mobility, it is unconscionable that penalties should vary so greatly in response to the same behavior.[10]

### Recommendations

1. In light of these findings by the National Commission on Marihuana and Drug Abuse, the Task Force supports the position of this Commission, which embodies disapproval of marijuana use while removing the criminal stigma and the threat of incarceration for users.
2. The Task Force urges that state and local education associations be encouraged to seek standardization of drug laws in their respective states, and that federal legislation be sought to standardize drug laws.
3. In dealing with standardization of drug laws, the drugs themselves must first be categorized correctly. Using the New York State Department of Health's Desk Reference on Drug Abuse (2nd edition), the Task Force recommends that the following categories be used nationwide:
    a. Cannabis (examples: marijuana, hashish, or any product of the hemp plant, cannabis sativa)
    b. Narcotic Analgesics (examples: opium, morphine, heroin, paregoric, codeine, meperidine (demerol), methadone (dolophine)
    c. Central Nervous System Depressants
        (1) Barbiturates (examples: amytal, tuinal, nembutal, seconal)
        (2) Volatile Hydrocarbons (examples: glue, paint and paint thinner, nail polish removers, aerosols, lighter fluid)

(3) Belladona Alkaloids (examples: belladona, scopolamine, hyoscyamine, stramonium, atropine, homatropine)

(4) Other Sedatives and Minor Tranquilizers (examples: miltown or equanil, librium, valium, noludar, valmid, placidly)

d. Central Nervous System Stimulants

(1) Amphetamines (examples: benzedrine, dexedrine, desoxyn, methedrine, preludin)

(2) Cocaine

e. Hallucinogens (examples: LSD, psilocybin, peyote/mescaline, morning glory seeds).

In addition, the Task Force recommends that a sixth category be established:

f. Socially Acceptable, Legal, Physiological and/or Psychological Dependency-Causing Drugs (examples: alcohol, caffeine, aspirin).

## X. Traffic in Narcotic Analgesics

Goal:

To develop more effective approaches on the part of the NEA to strengthen NEA Resolution 71-27 relating to improved international agreements for controlling drug supplies at the source.

Rationale:

The Task Force feels that present laws which provide for criminal action against those trafficking in narcotic analgesics are sufficient, but that more strict enforcement of these existing laws is necessary. The NEA, through its association with and membership in the World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession, should concern itself with the magnitude of international traffic in narcotic analgesics.

### Recommendation

While there are widespread economic and political implications in the area of international narcotic analgesic traffic, the Task Force recommends that the NEA, through its legal counsel, Legislative Commission, and Committee on International Relations, wherever feasible, cooperate with foreign teachers associations and other international agencies in seeking to control world-wide production and traffic in narcotic analgesics.

## QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Although the mandate of the Task Force was restricted to a study of the educational implications of drug abuse, other questions of concern to the teaching profession came to the attention of the Task Force. The following recommendations are designed to suggest further areas of study and policy formulation on the part of the NEA and its state and local affiliates:

### Recommendations

1. The profession has a responsibility for establishing guidelines for the behavior of teachers in respect to the use of drugs; for the assurance of due process to members against whom allegations of drug misuse have been lodged; and for determining what, if any, new or different standards for teacher behavior in respect to the use of drugs need to be established. The profession has a similar responsibility for guaranteeing due process for students allegedly misusing drugs.
2. The rehabilitation of students suffering from excess usage of drugs should be an educational responsibility of the public education authority. Local associations, therefore, should work for the establishment of treatment centers in which educational factors receive equal emphasis with medical rehabilitation.
3. The NEA and its state and local affiliates must address themselves to seeking ways whereby solutions can be found – by both educational and political means – to the social problems of which drug misuse is but a symptom. This calls not only for passing resolutions that direct the attention of the profession and the public to areas of needed social reform but also for directing legislative intervention on issues relating to military posture, civil rights, and other fundamental social questions.

## IMPLEMENTATION

As a result of their contacts with teachers and students across the country, the members of the NEA Task Force on Drug Education know that teachers and students want to serve as a positive force in the development and implementation of drug education programs, but that teachers are confused as to their role.

### Recommendation

To give teachers individually – and state and local associations organizationally – the leadership they seek, the Task Force recommends the establishment by the NEA of an Advisory Committee on Drug Education.

The Committee would be augmented by resource personnel from the principal national public and private drug education agencies and designated by those agencies.

The Committee should have the benefit of the staff services of an individual whose experience in the area of drug education includes participation in the development and/or implementation of national drug policies.

Functions of the Advisory Committee

1. Advise the president of the NEA on testimony to be presented on behalf of the NEA in congressional hearings on new legislation or in oversite hearings.
2. Develop guidelines for the activities, functions, and methods of funding of state and local drug education committees.
3. Advise the officers and the president of the NEA on the adoption and/or modification of policies of the NEA as they relate to drug education.
4. Assist in the implementation of the recommendations given in this report and monitor their development.
5. Establish guidelines for control of publications.

# THE UNITED TEACHING PROFESSION
# AND
# DRUG EDUCATION

## Authorization and Charge

### The NEA Position on Drug Education

> Resolution 71-27. Drug Abuse
>
> The National Education Association is concerned about the problem of drug abuse, particularly among the young. It recognizes the need for improved approaches to law enforcement in this area, including international agreements to control drug supplies at the source. It supports efforts to improve treatment facilities for addicts and encourages educational programs, such as the National Drug Education Training Program. The Association urges its affiliates to cooperate in the development of leadership training teams to implement the program.
>
> The Association also urges its affiliates to support person-oriented drug programs that deal with the causes of drug abuse.

### Action of the 1971 Representative Assembly (Detroit)

The following motion was presented by the chairman of the Task Force on Student Involvement and adopted by the Representative Assembly:

> That the report of the Task Force on Student Involvement be received, recognizing that it is pursuant to the principles enunciated in Resolution 70-12, and that the report be referred to the Executive Committee and the Board of Directors for implementation.

In respect to drug education, the Student Involvement Task Force has recommended:

> That a task force be appointed on drug education, composed of equal number of students and teachers, which will work with other public agencies and recommend programs of drug education and rehabilitation.

### Activities of the Task Force

The names of the members of the Task Force on Drug Education, appointed by President Morrison to undertake this charge, are listed on the inside front cover of this report.

The Task Force held three meetings and conducted field studies in Dade County, Florida; the San Francisco Bay area; and Denver, Arapahoe, Jefferson, and Boulder Counties in Colorado. In the course of its deliberations, the Task Force also consulted with representatives of agencies referred to throughout the content of this report.

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1. National Commission on Marihuana and Drug Abuse. *Marihuana: A Signal of Misunderstanding*. First Report. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1972. p. 32.

2. *Ibid*., p.34.

3. *Ibid*., p.66.

4. *Ibid*., p.85.

5. *Ibid*., p.71.

6. *Ibid*., p.87.

7. *Ibid*., p.110.

8. *Ibid*., p.112.

9. Note: For recommendations relating to student confidentiality, see National Education Association. Task Force on Student Involvement. Code of Student Rights and Responsibilities. Washington, DC: the Association, 1971. pp. 11-16.

10. Ibid., p. 172.

# DIFFERENT STROKES:
# MODELS OF DRUG ABUSE PREVENTION EDUCATION

*(ED106743)*

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Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association
1975

Since the beginning of the youthful drug scare in the 1960's, millions of dollars of federal, state, municipal, school district and private agency money have been spent in thousands of drug abuse prevention education programs across the nation. Recent reviews of the literature (Braucht, Follingstad, Brakarsh, and Berry, 1973; W.H.O., 1973; Randall and Wong, 1974) have come up with the same conclusion: there is little substantiated evidence that drug abuse education programs have any lasting effect on the drug using behavior of the clients. Furthermore, there is no evidence that speaks to the question, "What kind of drug education programs have what kinds of effects on what kinds of people?"

Instead of well evaluated, theoretically grounded programs, what has emerged is a large and varied number of approaches, all seemingly unaware of their philosophical proclivities, which have operated without clearly stated goals. Much criticism can be excused on the grounds that most attempts at drug education are recent; the true road to salvation, of one exists, is not well paved nor clearly lighted. The time is ripe, however, for a systematic analysis of the underlying assumptions and philosophical perspectives indicated by the literature.

This paper will first delineate models of drug abuse prevention education that seem to be indicated by the literature of the past six years. The second part of the paper is devoted to discussion of the research related to each model.

Each of nine models will be considered according to: (1) its basic premise; (2) positive and negative salient criticisms; and (3) implications and modes of application for drug abuse prevention education.

In order, the models that will be considered are: 1. the Legal Political Model; 2. the Fear Induction Model; 3. the Medical, Psychiatric Model; 4. the Psycho Social, Human Skills Model; 5. the Information Processing, Rationality Model; 6. the Reinforcement Model; 7. the Religious and Spiritual Model; 8. the Assumed Drive Model; and 9. the Alternatives Model.

## MODELS

### 1. The Legal-Political Model

For the last forty years, the legal-political model has been the most popular approach to prevention of drug abuse.* Drug abusing behavior is seen as wrong and made a crime. Strict laws are enacted with severe penalties for transgressors. The basis for these laws may be the definition of these behaviors as immoral, or it may pass under the general rubric of the protection of the public welfare. In any case, the principle goal of this model is the suppression of drug using behavior.

(2) In societies where great emphasis is placed on respect and obedience to legal or moral authority, this approach is quite workable. A principle of governance that holds for any society is that laws that govern must have a high percentage of voluntary compliance to be viable. Enforcement is otherwise impossible. At present, certain drug laws are violated by large numbers of Americans with apparent impunity. Tens of millions have used marijuana illegally; millions of others have used other illegal drugs or have used legally prescribed drugs in illegal ways; and still other manipulate the drug prescription system for their own ends. It has become fairly clear the laws passed to regulate use of chemicals are enforceable only through extreme measures.

In addition, the legal system as it is presently applied, is clearly not consistent within a general policy of protecting the public welfare. While some quite dangerous drugs are exempted from legal prohibition, extreme penalties are attached to the sale and use of other drugs shown by empirical evidence to be less harmful. In general the widespread disregard of many drug laws points to a growing lack of acceptance of the laws and an unwillingness on the part of large numbers of people to abide by them.

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(3) The legal-political approach to prevention has usually led to the handling of drug abuse prevention education by police officers and government officials. In the most usual format, these outside authorities are brought in to put on demonstrative programs aimed at exposing students to information and opinion about the danger of drugs., Often the presentations are limited to illegal drugs and focus on the legal and moral implications of their use.

Little or no evidence of the effectiveness of this model has been carried out. Nevertheless, considering its extensive use and the concurrent dramatic rise in drug abuse among youth, it seems fairly clear that this approach to drug abuse prevention has not been particularly effective. To the degree that this approach is based on biased and sometimes incorrect information, and is coupled with hypocritical enforcement, it may have the unintentional effect of creating disillusionment and distrust for the legal-political system in general.

## 2. The Fear Induction Model

(1) It is a fact that if people never experiment with drugs they will never use or become dependent on them. On way to accomplish this total abstinence is to mystify drugs and attach them and their use enormous power to accomplish evil. Beginning in the 1920's an intensive scare campaign was carried on to attach to drug use the most horrible of associations – mental derangement, physical disfigurement, crimes of violence and passion, and, perhaps, worst of all, the loosening of inhibitions. Films, presentations, and other exhortations were constructed to carry this message, the apparent motive being the protection and maintenance of the moral fiber of the citizenry.

(2) This approach is slightly more subtle than outright suppression. It depends heavily on the conditioning of fear responses to particular stimulus objects and is used quite effectively throughout the world in controlling peoples' behavior. It is especially popular in totalitarian regimes and quite successful in use with populations of superstitious people to whom life is a somewhat fearful prospect anyway.

The use of the model depends on absolute control of information sources. If only a few people talk about or are witnessed in the transgression of the rite – in this case drug use – the mysticism breaks down. Exposition of the deception can cause reaction on the part of the deceived, leading to anger, disillusionment and over-reaction to the once tabooed behavior.

In addition, as with the previous legal-political model, this model produces some monolithic concept of "drug" to which all sorts of evils can be ascribed without regard to differences of strength, quality, effect, toxicity, potential benefit, etc. Thus, when there are drugs in general use that cannot be proscribed because of societal acceptance, such as alcohol, nicotine, and caffeine, they must be renamed as non-drugs. These transformed drugs are then outside of the prohibited category, adding further to the deception.

(3) This approach has taken many forms. In its heyday, many films, filled with blatantly erroneous information, dramatically depicted the consequences of drug use. Billed as comedies on college campuses, the films today provide non-mute testimony to a history of counter-effective deception. Other forms include testimonials by addicts as to the horror of use, the showing of pictures of disfigured users, emphasis on the syringe, or association of drugs with blood, snakes and other stimuli generally accepted as fearful and loathsome.

While the heyday of this model has passed, it is still extant. Many of the recent films and much mass anti-drug advertising rely, in part, on this technique.

## 3. The Medical, Psychiatric Model

This model is an amalgamation of two or three closely linked points of view. Basic to these points of view is the assumption that something is wrong with a person who uses drugs to excess; drug abuse must indicate either psychological or physical dysfunction. The psychological point of view assumes that cause to be trauma, blockage, or other malfunction deeply rooted in the subject's unconscious mind as a result of some early life experiences. A related point of view assumes an unknown physical or, in some cases, psycho-physical dysfunction. In either case, the individual is labeled as suffering from an incurable illness, the prevention of which is complete abstention from drug use.

(2) To a great degree, this model also relies on the mystification of the symptom of drug abuse and its causes. A large number of psychoanalysts, psychiatrists, and psychologists, provide one-to-one therapy in the service of this mystification. The success rate of cure has been low. For our purposes, however, the major drawback of this model is that is prescribes little in the way of abuse prevention education.

(3) The medical, psychiatric model focusing primarily on the alleviation of sickness post hoc, has little to say about the problem of prevention. At best two points can be made: (a) great care should be taken to avoid establishing psychological traumatic blockages especially during infant development; and (b) at an older level, people who are prone to chemical dependency should be identified and given early intervention treatment to free them from their fate. Unfortunately, no reliable, efficient methods have ever been devised to accomplish these recommendations.

In short, regardless of the degree of truth inherent in this model, there is not much to recommend it as a model for drug abuse prevention.

## 4. The Psycho-Social, Human Skills Model

This model begins with the assumption that drug use is a symptom of some deficit in psychological-social growth. It presumes that people are filling a gap in their lives with drugs that need not be there if either personalties or environment were providing ingredients for a meaningful, happy way of living. Given this assumption, there are two directions abuse prevention may take: attempt to restructure the environment, or attempt to remediate the person so that she/he is better able to meet the needs in non-chemically induced ways.
Changing the environment is a heady task -- not one that is likely to show much accomplishment in the short run. While many theorists and practitioners probably hold this out for a long range goal, most see the immediate problem as one of building more complete people with fewer deficiencies. Most see the deficiencies as occurring developmentally, i.e., the individual may or may not learn the necessary skills, attitudes, or concepts while growing up. Thus, special attention should be paid to these particular areas for youth, and programs should be developed to remediate deficiencies that do already exist.

Johnson (1974) for example has developed a theory which delineates six "social effectiveness" skills that are posited to have a direct relationship on later drug use: a. the trusting attitudes that one can rely upon the affection and support of other people; b. the attitudes of confidence in one's capabilities and in one's capacity to effect desired change in the environment through the application of these capabilities; c. the attitude that there is a meaningful purpose and direction in one's life; d. an integrated and coherent set of attitudes defining one's self identify; e. the negative capacity to take the cognitive and emotional perspective of other people within a situation; and f. the interpersonal skills needed to build and maintain socially effective relationships.

According to the theory, building strength in these areas, either as people grow and develop, and/or providing remedial programs for people who may be deficient in one or more of these areas will have a significant effect on this probability of drug abuse occurring in those people impacted.

(2) Since there is a substantial body of research showing correlational relationships between several of these variables and people who have had problems with various kinds of drugs, this approach seems to hold promise. To blame the environment for problems of social dysfunctions, however, is a common and easy tack. That part of the formula is simple. The remaining parts, i.e., devising new environments that will do a better job in creating more drug abuse resistant people, and proving their superiority, is more difficult. In any case, it is unlikely that formal education in the usual form that we know now will lead to curtailment of drug use. Colleges and graduate universities, for example, are often places where drugs are used more widely (Dvorak, 1972).

(3) The implications of this model for application in drug abuse prevention education have been delineated as: change the psycho-social environment within which people are developed; and/or provide supplementary or remedial experience that go beyond the usual environment. In its extreme form, choice number one constitutes a frontal attack on and complete revision of the whole society so that it will conform to what theorists predict will produce a drug abuse resistant individual.

To actual practice this approach has meant the development of special programs aimed at enhancing specific skills, behaviors and attitudes of growing youth. In addition, programs and insightful experiences have been developed that try to influence the way adults who work with youth interact with them.

An offshoot of this psycho-social approach to drug abuse prevention education is the present movement concerned with values of clarification education (Raths, 1964; Simon, et. al, 1972; Brotman and Suffet, 1973; Smith, 1973; Paulson, 1974). Although this ethic insists that all values are to be respected, there is a covert assumption that focus on personal value clarification will lead to the adoption of values that are not congruent with drug use. The federal government has identified this approach as one of the two most effective modes of Drug Education (USDHEW, 1974).

## 5. The Information Processing, Rationality Model

(1) The presumption that the human animal operates on a rational basis doesn't seem to be too risky a proposition. This model makes that assumption and goes a step further. The rationality model assumes that if drug abuse prevention education confines itself to giving the facts about drugs - what they are, what they do, how they make a person feel, and what are the short and long range physical, social, and legal consequences - people will come to the rational, logical conclusion to stay away from psychoactive chemicals. Programs that strictly adhere to this model stay away from preaching, moralizing, or scolding and aim at providing as many of the facts as they can about chemical and behavioral pharmacology, body systematic interactions, and legal implications.

(2) In addition to the assumption that the human determines his behavior in a rational, logical manner, this approach further assumes that information tends to modify behavior. Based on these assumptions, this model

hypothesizes that analysis of the facts about drugs will lead logically to a decision not to use drugs. There is little or no data to support any of these conclusions. In fact, some studies indicate an increase in drug experimentation under drug information programs. The motivation for this increased experimentation is unknown. Decreased fear, increased curiosity, a lack of trust in authority, and a need to find out for oneself all seem to contribute. In addition, while the human seems to base some of his decision making on logical processes, she/he seems very prone to opting for short range positive outcomes, when they are opposed by long-range negative outcomes of undetermined probability.

Even the adherents to this approach, however, don't seem to have complete trust in its capability to induce youth not to use drugs. The federal government reports that a more usual approach is logical information giving "mixed with plenty of puritan ethics" (USDHEW, 1974).

### 6. The Reinforcement Model

(1) This is perhaps the most theoretically sound model. The effects of positive and negative reinforcement have been empirically demonstrated in thousands of laboratory and field studies employing a wide variety of animals from one-celled planacea to humans. It is quite clear that behavior of some kind is learned though conditioning experiences, and that these experiences can, in many circumstances be purposefully arranged so that desired results will be obtained.

Perhaps this model is at its best in providing a theoretical explanation for why drug abuse and dependency occur. Drugs, and the related effect produced or associated with their use, are very powerful reinforcers. In fact many theorists explain drug abuse and chemical dependency solely on the basis of the fact that taking drugs is positively and negatively reinforcing. The behavior is positively reinforced by the pleasant sensations produced and negatively reinforced by the taking away of feelings of anxiety, tension, depression, etc.

If drug abuse tendencies are brought about through reinforcement conditioning then, the argument reads, prevention can also rely on the application of these same principles.

(2) The very procrustean nature of this paradigm in its ability to explain so much of human behavior makes disagreement difficult. Nevertheless, applications of the theory in drug rehabilitation have not been uniformly successful. Applications in drug abuse prevention education have been so minimal and poorly documented that there is little reason to flock to its gates as a panacea for drug abuse problems.

A major difficulty in the application of this model lies in controlling the variables involved to the degree necessary for success. This is especially true when the emphasis is on positive reinforcement. Anti-drug responses, or at least responses reflecting reasoned, thoughtful ideas concerning drug abuse, must occur before they can be reinforced. This necessarily involves the structuring of an environment in which they will occur.

Unfortunately the real environment in which Americans live is one that pushes and encourages drug use. In the interests of higher sales, the lubrication of social contact and the avoidance of even minimal pain, drugs such as alcohol and tobacco as well as prescription and over the counter drugs, are pushed with fervor by the media, by colleagues, and by a generalized societal sanction for using approved chemical comforters. Without a change in the foregoing onslaught, it is doubtful that a few occurrences of reinforcement for views in opposition to the general environment will have much long run effect.

(3) Control over the source of reinforcement is central to the application of this model. At some levels of development, teachers, parents, and other authority figures partially control such reinforcers as attention, recognition, and approval. In the use of this approach, then, instructors and peers are trained to positively reinforce appropriate anti-drug verbal behavior, usually in small group settings.

Many of the drug education programs can be viewed as a less systemized application of these same principles. The emphasis on using both straight and reformed user peers is in a sense an attempt to attach authoritative reinforcement to the non use of chemicals. In addition, the glorification of the natural foods, clean air, outdoor enjoyments, natural states of mind, and the like, is in a sense the building of positive alternative reinforcements. In the latter case, drug using adherents, however, might rejoinder with comment on the naturalness of nature's own weed, cactus, and mushroom.

At a more philosophical level, there is a continuing debate over the appropriateness of any methods which employ procedures aimed at behavior modification toward a specific end willed by an authority. The willingness and liberty of mankind is considered by some as sacrosanct. Systematic attempts at control are often fought with vigor in philosophical treatises as well as in the courts.

### 7. The Religious Spiritual Model

(1) This model sees the answer to drug abuse in the dedication of one's life to a religious entity or set of faith-derived principles. With the inculcation of the religious faith usually comes an imposition of a very strict set of

rules that guide behavior. In most cases drug use in not allowed, in others it may be allowed only ceremonially.

Usually these groups of faithful are closely knit and highly dedicated. They promote and take part in numerous activities that occur frequently and that promote public service. The fellowship for those who are admitted to the faith is usually very warm, quite emotional, apparently fulfilling, and involves frequent interpersonal interchange.

(2) As a model for drug abuse prevention, this model is consummately successful. Drug use and abuse in the most strict and serious of these groups is practically nonexistent. Even among the adherents of the more loosely structured, less demanding, and less strict religious groupings, drug abuse is far less common that it is among people whose religious beliefs are weak or not oriented toward any formal expression (Blum, et al., 1970). In general, most religious affiliations have been shown to be correlated with attenuated drug use.

The religious spiritual model does not seem to appeal, however, to the average member of the drug abusing population. Strict, fundamentalist groups attract as followers only a small percentage of youth. In addition, it cannot be promoted in the schools or by public agencies. As one alternative available to those who would choose for themselves, however, it is certainly viable.

(3) As a choice available to those who are prone or willing to enter into the covenant required, this model is a highly successful deterrent to drug abuse. In general though, it is nor promotable by public agencies.

In practice, this model stresses numerous social and spiritual activities that may operate to fill needs for alternatives. In addition, the model provides for metaphysical needs not assumed by other models of drug abuse prevention. The prescribed set of values and attitudes reflect loving, caring, sharing and serving. In many cases the actual resulting behavior among devotees create an atmosphere that stresses warm supportive interpersonal interchange.

These same behaviors and experiences are similar to the human skills building experiences advocated by the psycho-social model. Part of the effectiveness of this model in ameliorating drug abusing behavior should probably be ascribed to these techniques and experiences. The fulfillment of a spiritual need and the self fulfilling demands of faith required by this approach may well account for its unusual effectiveness.

## 8. The Assumed Drive Model

(1) This model assumes a human need that goes beyond the pleasure principal to an actual psychobiological drive toward what are loosely called "peak experiences" (Maslow, 1959), "fully functioning" levels (Rogers, 1961), "genetic transcendence" and "neuroelectrical ecstasy" (Leary, 1973) and "altered state of consciousness" (Weil, 1972). Adherents propose that the consuming drive to achieve these states is a natural part of human functioning and point out humankind's use throughout history to achieve these states. They point out that with the discovery and synthesis of new and more potent chemicals the current rise in drug use becomes predictable. It follows that the drive exists and if society does not provide the environment or the satisfaction of this drive without drugs, people will turn to whatever means are available for at least its temporary satisfaction.

For some, drug use is the easiest way of satisfying the need to achieve altered states of consciousness. While the chemical route may offer only temporary relief from the drive, some adherents to this model suggest that the use of drugs is one way of opening up blockages and providing enhanced possibilities for achieving further real growth toward the transcendent goal state (Weil, 1972; Leary, 1973).

Most proponents of this model would agree that these states, though elusive, are attainable through non-drug means, e.g. through the manipulation of experiences which provide movement toward this goal state. Most would also agree that these non-drug consciousness states, though harder to attain, are deeper, longer lasting, and more rewarding.

(2) It is difficult to criticize a position that assumes some basic physiological/spiritual drive state. The evidence that this is, in fact, an inbred drive and not a learned tendency toward experiences that produce pleasure is hardly more than speculative. Perhaps it is not necessary and not even especially helpful to presume such a drive. To propose that certain experiences are pleasant – perhaps exceptionally pleasant – and that people will try to achieve them, is enough, at least for the purposes of drug abuse education.

It may not be reasonable to assume that if pleasurable levels of consciousness can be achieved through non-drug means, they will be chosen over their drug induced counterparts. Achieving "transcendent" states through non-drug means may require effort, diligence, and, if the writings of Eastern and Western sages is to be believed, may occur only as slow movement toward a goal. It appears, however, that this movement is brought about at least partly through learning of appropriate psychological sets and responses. Once learned it seems reasonable to assume that the learning will be long lasting and self-directed rather than temporary and dependent on the ingestion of a foreign chemical.

(3) If a presumption is made that the drive toward self actualization and altered states of consciousness is innate, the mandate of drug abuse prevention is to help people

achieve such states without abusing drugs. At one level this may go as far as education in safe techniques for using mind altering chemicals, providing group facilitated drug trips, or setting up "get high comfort stations". Given the present value structures of majority American society, it is more likely, however, that the achievement of growth towards "higher levels of consciousness" will be sanctioned only through non-drug induced experiences. Currently, meditation, Yogic practices, bio-feedback of brain waves status, and hypnosis provide such experiences (Tart, 1969).

To some degree the implications for drug education stemming from this model merge with the alternatives model that follows. Both assume that similar experiences to those induced by the chemically altered state can be achieved through non-drug means. One difference is that in the Assumed Drive Model there is a long range emphasis toward achieving personal growth toward higher levels of consciousness. In the Alternatives Model, this may be a goal, but it is not necessary.

## 9. The Alternatives Model

(1) The alternatives model for drug abuse prevention begins with the consciousness state induced by drugs. Adherents attempt to identify the feelings and cognition that make the drug induced state attractive and desirable. Then it makes the assumptions that: these mental states can be brought about without ingestion of externally produced chemicals; and a "natural" methods is to be desired over the chemically induced method.

A few writers have produced analyses of the chemically induced state of consciousness. In general they arrive at the following characteristics: (a) a sense of euphoria, of high, of feeling good, a feeling that everything is all right; (b) a physical and mental relaxation coupled with peace of mind; (c) a feeling that there is a meaning to life; (d) a feeling of oneness, of unity both within oneself and with the rest of the world, a harmony; (e) a sense of communication and communion with others, of involvement, of closeness and trust; (f) a feeling of insight about self, life and associated problems; (g) altered perceptions of time, space, touch, vision, etc., new ways of looking at things, problems, ideas; and (h) a certain ineffable, unexplainable quality that can't be put into words. (Adapted from Brantner, 1974; Cohen, 1971).

The next step is to identify non-drug experiences that can bring on these same mental states. Some authors have set about doing that (Cohen, 1971; Dohner, 1972; Payne, 1973; Masters and Houston, 1972) and have elaborated many suggested alternative experiences which supposedly supply the same kinds of feelings and cognition.

(2) One prominent criticism of this approach can be alluded to anecdotally. When it was suggested at a recent meeting attended by the author, that experiences such as parachute jumping and hang-gliding, may be "substitute" experiences that could be introduced as an alternative to drug induced experiences, a drug-using friend remarked in an aside, "Wow! can you imagine how far-out it would be to be stoned and floating down on a parachute". In short, in order to be true "alternatives" to drug use, any suggested experience must be such that it would not be enhanced by experiencing it in a chemically altered state.

In addition, the provision of alternatives to the chemically intoxicated state assumes that there are some characteristics in the drugged state that are indeed identifiable, replicable, and will retain their attractiveness over many attainments. Even the most unique experiences, however, can become habituated to and boring.

On the surface it seems plausible that non-chemically induced experiences can take the place of those to be achieved through chemical intoxication. On closer inspection, something is missing - perhaps the assumption is too simplistic, perhaps it is another case of treating the symptom and not the cause, perhaps there really is some underlying motivation, need, drive or personality imperfection. In any case, an appeal to alternative experiences that imitate chemically intoxicated consciousness seems to be placing the responsibility for the root of the drug abuse problem in the drugs themselves as opposed to the individual. Ultimately the reason for abusing drugs lies in the individual who abuse them as well as in the cultural/societal environment. The drunk, stoned, intoxicated, smashed, wrecked, feeling no pain, or high state is one that can be triggered by a chemical, but it is ultimately created by the individual.

Finally, viewing the provision of these experiences as "alternatives" to drug use is to some degree to set them aside as special and apart from normalcy. It might be better to go one step further and to see these "alternatives" as not specifically "alternatives" but as integrated parts of the virtually infinite possibilities for life experiences. Rather than making them experiences introduced as potential substitutes they could be part of the panorama of natural choices that exist for every person, regardless of her/his propensity toward drug abuse.

(3) Narrowly defined, this model attempts to define the characteristic factors of the chemically induced high and define alternative non-drug experiences that produce a similar state of consciousness. The role of drug education would be to introduce and further the opportunity for these experiences in our society in the hopes that people would choose them over drugs. There have been no documented evaluations of the effect of such programs on drug abusing

behavior. It is hard to imagine how a causal connection could be definitely established. The underlying principle, however, seems reasonable: society should provide the maximum number of alternative opportunities for people to engage in potentially meaningful activities, with a system for the provision of help and guidance for getting into these activities.

## RESEARCH

Most of the foregoing models have been formulated from the large body of literature on drug abuse prevention education. While the literature is wide ranging and provides much food for hypothesis generation, there is little substance in the form of objective, quantifiable evidence of effects. In this section, I will match the evidence to be found in the models presented.

While the fear induction model and the legal-political model have been the primary modes of drug abuse prevention education, there is little in the way of objective evidence to recommend their use. Although both these techniques work in controlling behavior, at least in the short run, there is plenty of evidence to indicate that people are weighing the probabilities of arrest for the private use of drugs and are finding them within the limits of their willingness to risk. Both the use of illicit drugs and the illicit use of legal drugs involve a significant and rising number of Americans. An NIMH study reports, for example, that as long ago as 1969, 27% of the prescription psychoactive drugs used in San Francisco were obtained through (normal) "gray market" channels (Mellinger, 1969).

There is some evidence to show that the use of outside professional and other authority figures in drug abuse education is effective (Geis, 1969; Ungerleider and Bowen, 1969; Weinswig and Weinswig, 1969). Another study asking college students to rate several kinds of authorities at "preventing or stopping the use of dangerous drugs" assessed the effectiveness of types of authority used. The results placed "doctors and other health professionals" third behind "former users" and "friends". Law enforcement officials and lawyers were placed sixth and ninth respectively, barely ahead of clergy. (Martin and O'Rourke, 1972). A similar study of high school students corroborates the high ranking of friends and other users as the most trusted authorities and ranks doctors and scientists as less credible sources (Smart and Fejer, 1972). Among soldiers in the U.S Army in Europe, however, physicians were the preferred sources of information, with former addicts coming in a distant second (Tennant, 1972). A different study indicated that drug users rejected information from both users and "straights", but were more prone to reject it from "straights" (Smart, 1972).

The use of the former addict and the user as an outside authority in drug education programs has been popular (Blum, 1972; Geis, 1969; Kline and Wilson, 1972; Snowden and Cotler, 1973; Swisher, 1968), but not necessarily an effective approach in changing attitudes or behavior (Swisher et. al, 1973; Swisher, Warner and Herr, 1972).

Apparently the authorities who will be listened to most attentively are people who "have been there" and friends reporting personal experience (Capone et. al., 1973; Lawler, 1971). Direct experience seems to be the criterion, and the degree to which the authority is seen as having experience, increases his/her effectiveness. The ranking of clergy last may buttress this conclusion.

Evidence for the effectiveness of the medical psychiatric model in drug rehabilitation is good when the format is self help groups, but poor for one-to-one therapy. Evidence for the use of this model in drug abuse prevention education, is virtually non-existent. To the degree that psychiatric help establishes positive mental health, the model probably relies on some of the same base assumptions of the psycho-social human skills model; if people are in a state of positive mental health, they will not need to use drugs to a level of abuse (Miller, 1973).

The evidence that speaks to the latter assumption, and to the argument of the human skills model generally, has evolved from clinical, anecdotal, and some correlational/experimental data. Braucht et. al., (1973) reviewed evidence for psycho-social correlates to deviant drug use in adolescence. The data indicates correlations between characteristics in their background, e.g., family cohesiveness, family drug use, religion, self definition, anxiety, sex role conflict, with later drug use. Other research has also pointed to family and adjustment problems as primary distinguishing potential drug abusers (Blum, 1972; Goodman, 1972; Green et. al., 1973) while Gossett (1972) reported that drug users in his survey indicated greater signs of "emotional disturbance." Low levels of self esteem have also been shown to relate to drug abusing problems (Green et. al., 1973; Kaplan and Megerwitz, 1970; Noren-Hebeisen, 1974).

Although feelings of alienation do not seem to correlate with illicit drug use, other than alcohol and tobacco, among adolescents (Warner and Swisher, 1971), Tennant (1972) reported that opiate addicted soldiers tended to have a history of deviant behavior before entering the armed forces. In a slightly different approach, Kellinger et. al. (1974) used a national drug survey to show that drug use among women and men is related to psychic distress and life crisis. Again, the most popular drugs were prescription drugs and alcohol. Taken as a whole, these data seem to indicate that control of certain psycho-social factors might contribute heavily to control of drug abuse.

It must be pointed out that there is no experimental evidence to indicate a causal relationship among these variables. There have not been the longitudinal studies necessary to speak with confidence about the experimental manipulation of these psycho-social variables and their relation to drug abuse. The literature does suggest, however, a relationship between some psycho-social variables and drug abuse. Most of these characteristics are learned tendencies and there is evidence that specific programs can have some effect on their development. The formulation and testing of specific variables in a longitudinal study of large scope seem to be indicated as the next step.

Evidence for the viability of the information processing, rationality model is mixed. It is fairly clear that increased information about drugs does not lead automatically to the curtailment of drug use. In fact, it may increase experimentation with certain kinds of drugs. (Stuart, 1974; Tennant, 1973; Weaver and Tennant, 1973). There is however some indication that drug analysis programs supplying information on the quality and purity of street drugs may at least lead to more careful use (Pearlman and Silverman, 1973).

While it has been shown to be possible to bring about large increases in the knowledge base of participants in drug education programs this does not necessarily bring about a corresponding change in attitude toward drugs (Anthony et. al., 1974; Korn and Goldstein, 1973; Smith, 1971; Swanson, 1972; Swisher and Crawford, 1971; Weaver and Tennant, 1973). It can be argued that the research designs used involving immediate post testing does not allow enough time to detect changes in attitude information. It may also be argued that the instruments used in the attitude measurement are not sensitive to the kinds of changes occurring. The most logical argument to make, however, is that delivery of information alone does not being about changes relevant to the diminuation of drug use. In fact, many of the studies that indicate no change in attitude, also indicate no change in drug use behavior as reported by students. In any case, if the objective of drug education is abstinence, or even strict curtailment of use, the information processing rationality model does not appear to be adequate.

There is some evidence that reinforcement procedures are at least partially successful in drug dependency rehabilitation programs. The difficulty in controlling the variables, however, seems to have kept most educators from applying these same procedures in drug abuse prevention education. Two studies by Horan et. al. (1973) describe procedures for the application of reinforcement technology to drug abuse prevention. The studies report "success" in reaching goals through a small group counseling approach using reinforcement of specific verbal behavior. Unfortunately, the studies provide no data. Two other studies comparing small groups of varying format also report success in using reinforcement of verbal behavior in the small group setting (Swisher, Warner and Herr, 1972; Warner, Swisher and Horan, 1973). The researchers report gains in knowledge and attitude change in "desired directions" for members of groups using reinforcement procedures.

No data has been encountered for drug abuse prevention education programs using the religious spiritual approach. While on the one hand it can be readily assumed that converts into groups which require devotion to a deity and rigid adherence to a strict code of behavior do not use drugs to excess, it also appears to be true that outside of these groups the clergy are not viewed as sources of accurate information about drug use and its consequences (Martin and O'Rourke, 1972). Paradoxically it is also well known that certain indigenous American religions and other quasi-religious groups judiciously use drugs in some of their ceremonies. While the religious approach is probably not suitable for broad scale public drug abuse prevention programs, it certainly is a deterrent to drug abuse for those who find meaning in it.

As has been mentioned earlier, the assumed drive model and the alternatives model do not differ greatly in the actual application of procedures for drug abuse prevention. Virtually all of the literature in this area either speculates or assumes the relationship between alternative sources of enjoyment and the drive to higher levels of consciousness. Much of the literature is an application of techniques, games, and experiences that may be employed either as alternatives to drug induced experiences or as methods of achieving these consciousness states (Cohen, 1971; Dohner, 1972; Gordon, 1972; Jones, 1971; Masters and Houston, 1972; Payne, 1973; Weil, 1972).

It is interesting to note that most of the alternatives suggested by these authors involve interactions between humans. To this degree, they are congruent with the psycho-social human skills model. The latter posits virtually all of the delineated skills as learnable – most through human contact.

## CONCLUSIONS

What emerges from the mass of prose and reported data is that drug abuse is a complex phenomenon and that a wide variety of programs and modes have been used in an attempt to counteract it. Some have clearly proved themselves to be unsatisfactory; others seem to hold varying levels of promise for effectiveness in getting across particular messages. There is no clear cut evidence for any particular guiding light. Two frequently mentioned salients seem worth comment, however.

Numerous modes of applications have been attempted in the dissemination of drug abuse prevention education. Didactic presentations, testimonials, films, computer aide instruction, small group discussions, awareness exercises, sensitivity exercises, confrontation groups, demonstrations, field trips, alternative sources of feelings, self-help groups, meditation, empathy training, and many other modes have been reported in the literature. One approach that has consistently met with success is the use of peer influence (Capone et. al., 1973; DeLone, 1972; Lawler, 1971; Toigo and Kaminstein, 1972; Warren and Swisher, 1971). In correlative studies, peer sanctions, and peer influence are frequently indicated variables. When asked to rate sources of information that are seen as credible, peers always rank at or near the top (Martin and O'Rourke, 1972; Smart, 1972; Smart and Fejer, 1972).

It seems obvious then that the systematic use of peer influence would be one effective way of bringing about desired changes in drug abusing behavior. Placing an individual in a peer environment that either reinforces or does not reinforce drug use is bound to have an effect on her/his drug use. The manipulation of peer influence, however, is a difficult and touchy endeavor, fraught with the danger of backfire and further alienation from adult influence. In addition, while peer influence in youth may have positive short term goals, the commanding peer influence of the adult world toward the consumption of alcohol and tobacco portends short lived effect.

Another thread wends its way through many of the models indicating a viable approach. Drug abuse is somehow related to learning experiences in the history of the individual; the most significant of these experiences are those in human interaction. This theme is paramount to the medical psychiatric, psycho-social human skills, reinforcement, and the alternatives models. It is a seductive conclusion to draw, but one that is difficult to apply, and even more difficult to prove. In addition, if the prescriptions of many of the theorists adhering to these models were followed, a major restructuring of American society would be in order.

When reviews such as this indicate that the state of the art is as muddled as this one appears to be, there is usually a ringing cry for more and better research; better designs; more control over extraneous variables; use of behavioral indicators of drug abuse as criteria for effectiveness; long term follow-up; and most centrally, clear cut formulation and measurement of goals and objectives. This review does not differ in this conclusion. However, while the research may continue to offer some clues, the ultimate linkage of a decline in drug use to some specific fact of one particular mode of prevention education seems highly unlikely.

Humans vary greatly. The complexity of their underlying motivations, crossed with the number of possible modes of drug abuse, provides more interactions than longitudinal research can soon ferret out. Until such time as it does, the plethora of approaches and models that seemed at first to be chaotic and non-productive, may be the most reasonable attack. While the prescription "different strokes for different folks" may not be very scientific, the symptoms seem to indicate it.

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* For purposes of this paper drug abuse is taken to mean the chronic excessive use of a mind altering chemical(s) to the extent that normal human functioning is significantly impaired.

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# A PRIMARY PREVENTION DRUG EDUCATION PROGRAM FOR SCHOOL CHILDREN: AN ATTEMPT AT EVALUATION

***(ED124860)***

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Cognitively based prevention programs have gained a reputation of being ineffective. Therefore several affective programs have been established. One such program called Value Sharing has been used as a basis for teacher training in values exchanges in the classroom. This program focuses on having students explore values and identifying a process for enhancing the values of others while maximally enhancing their personal values. Strategies for Values Clarification (Raths, Harmin, and Simon, 1966), communication techniques, and the integration of values in subject matter teaching are studied. Although the teacher is directly oriented, it is expected that the atmosphere in her classroom will change and her treatment of students will be less directive and more accepting.

The effect on the students although indirect should involve a positive change in self-concept, a change in attitude toward risk taking and an increased competency in decision making. Hopefully students will then be able to withstand peer/parental pressures in later years. Such long term goals and indirect training creates a special problem in measuring the impact of such programs. This study is an attempt to measure the effectiveness of one teacher training program.

## THE STUDY

Value sharing training for teachers is a project of the Addictions Prevention Laboratory which is supported by a grant from the Pennsylvania Governor's Council on Drug and Alcohol Abuse. The training was coordinated with the Tri-County Council on Addictive Diseases in Harrisburg. The teachers in this particular project received graduate course credit from The Pennsylvania State University for participation in the course.

On January 14, 1975 a project was begun with a rural elementary school in the tri-county area. The school is located in a somewhat economically deprived area. The majority of the employed are in agriculture or are blue collar workers for a railroad. The students and teachers are predominantly white.

The school is new and constructed in large pods or open classroom areas. The fifth and sixth grade pods were the target area since some teachers had had value sharing training while others had not. The fifth grade pod had four teachers (three female, one male) and about 118 children. The sixth grade pod had four female teachers and about 113 children. Subjects were chosen through agreement of fifth and sixth grade teachers to participate and through informed consent letters signed by parents.

Two teachers in each pod were enrolled in the value sharing training course. Since the open classroom arrangement had all students exposed to all four teachers in each grade, no control group in that school was possible. No school with an equivalent demographic group was readily available so a control group was not tested. The design became a simple pre-post analysis in the one school. Pretesting was done in January and posttesting in late May.

**Table I**
**Subjects in Study**

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Grade: | | |
| | | Fifth | 71 |
| | | Sixth | 86 |
| 2. | Sex: | | |
| | | Female | 83 |
| | | Male | 74 |
| 3. | Under Teachers Trained/Non-Trained | | |
| | | Value Sharing Trained | 76 |
| | | Non-Trained | 81 |
| 4. | Teachers | | |
| | Fifth: | 2 Trained. 2 Non-Trained | |
| | Sixth: | 2 Trained. 2 Non-Trained | |

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All students completed the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (1967) and two portions of the Carney Risk-taking Attitude Questionnaire (1970). These two sections were Part I, Risks and Dangers (health) and Part II, Gains (social acceptance).

In addition observations were made of student-teacher interactions in a pod; twice prior to any testing or teacher training and once a week until the post test observations were made using the Interaction Analysis of Value-Clarification Behaviors (Pennsylvania Department of Education, 1970). The weekly observations were one hour long and the time was randomly chosen. Observations were recorded every ten seconds. Finally frequencies in categories were transferred to a master tally sheet. Periodically visual observations were made using still photography.

The Coppersmith Self-Esteem Inventory was chosen because it was geared to the fifth and sixth grade age levels. In addition reliability and validity measures were excellent. The instrument is a self-report scale which includes the following subscales:

- General Self Scale
- Social-Peer Scale
- Home-Parental Scale
- School-Academic Scale
- Lie Scale

The long form of 58 short statements covering personal interests, peers, school, and parents was used. Students circled either "Like Me" or "Unlike Me." The only modification made was to rearrange pre-test items to reduce patterning and/or remembering of responses on the post test.

Dr. Carney's research on the motivational correlates to cigarette smoking had led to trying to measure achievement motivation, decision making or "risky" behaviors, and extraversion. The Carney Risk-taking Questionnaire (RTAQ) was devised in 1968. Since then many projects have used the RTAQ to project the possibility of drug-abuse by high risk-taking individuals. Carney reports "reasonably high" regression coefficients between ratings and behavior (Carney, 1970).

The RTAQ's Part I and Part II were given at the same time as the Self-esteem Inventory. Questions appeared at the top of pages and students related that question to fifteen given items. Answers were circled from the choices of "Not Much," "Some," and "A Lot."

Modifications were the use of Parts I and II only; assignment of a score of three to the most socially acceptable response and one to the least acceptable. The lowest score was 15 and indicated high risk taking with a score of 45 indicating low risk taking.

The Interaction Analysis of Value-Clarification Behaviors (IAVCB) is a modification of Flander's Interaction Analysis Behaviors observation form (Amidon/Flanders, 1963). It records verbal indicators of beliefs, purposes, attitudes, interests, aspirations, feelings, activities, and ways of thinking. It also records initiating actions by teachers and students' responses. The modified form was prepared by the Pennsylvania Department of Education, Division of Applied Research (1970).

For the photographic observations two 35mm cameras were used: Canon FIb with 50 and 135mm lenses and a Canon FI with a 40mm lens. No flash accessories were used, and these photographic observations, randomly timed, were not made on the same days as the IAVCB observations.

It was expected that children exposed to value sharing strategies and techniques would

- improve in overall self-esteem as shown by an increase in the Self-Esteem Inventory Score from pre to post test
- show a lowered risk-taking attitude by increasing their scores on the Risk-taking Attitude Questionnaire from pre to post test
- exhibit increased values clarification behavior by increasing frequencies of these items on the IAVCB form from pre to post test

## RESULTS

On the Self-Esteem Inventory the four subscores were added to give a total score. The data were analyzed by t-tests.

For all students there was a significant increase in mean score from pre to post test. When divided by sex of child and by grade, there is still a significant increase in self-esteem scores. However, for children directly instructed by teachers in the value sharing training course there was no difference from pre-to-post-test, while there was an increase in scores for these children taught directly by nonvalue sharing trained teachers. This result is directly opposed to the expected.

### Table 2
### Correlated T Tests (SEI)

| | Mean Pre-Test | Mean Post-Test | SD Pre | SD Post | T-Value | (P) | N |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All Students | 33.84 | 36.12 | 8.96 | 9.10 | -3.84 | 0.000 | 157 |
| All Girls | 33.98 | 36.27 | 8.84 | 9.02 | -3.04 | 0.003 | 83 |
| All Boys | 33.67 | 35.94 | 9.15 | 9.24 | -2.41 | 0.018 | 74 |
| 5th Grade | 35.19 | 37.33 | 8.48 | 8.13 | -2.92 | 0.005 | 71 |
| 6th Grade | 32.72 | 35.11 | 9.23 | 9.75 | -2.65 | 0.010 | 86 |
| V-S Teachers | 35.06 | 35.80 | 8.33 | 8.93 | -0.86 | 0.387 | 76 |
| NV-S Teachers | 32.69 | 36.41 | 9.42 | 9.29 | -4.83 | 0.000 | 81 |

SD = standard deviation
(P) = probability
V-S Teachers = pertains to students directed by teachers taking value sharing course
NV-S-Teachers = pertains to students not directed by value sharing teachers

In a further analysis the Lie score was subtracted from the self-esteem score. Those with a difference of 10 or less were judged to show less defensiveness and their scores were used in a separate analysis with a repeated measures design which is summarized in Table 3 below.

The children under nonvalue sharing teachers had a lower pre test mean and a higher post test mean than did children under value sharing teachers. Again with scores of those children who were judged less defensive the expected results do not appear.

Next the scores for the Risk-Taking Attitude Questionnaire were analyzed by t-tests (see Table 4). On the Health measure, Part I, there was a difference for all students, for boys, and for sixth graders. However, the changes were a decrease in scores. If higher scores reflect low risk-taking behavior, then these children show an increase in risk-taking behavior. In fact even for the non-significant analyses, the pattern of decrease in score does hold.

### Table 3
### Adjusted SEI Scores for Non-Defensive Children

| Source | df | MS | F | Pr |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Teachers: | | | | |
| Value Sharing/Non-Value Sharing | 1 | 9.975 | 0.442 | |
| Error | 97 | 22.545 | | |
| Pre/Post | 1 | 41.823 | 7.655 | |
| Teachers/Testings | 1 | 33.712 | 6.170 | <.05 |
| Error | 97 | 5.464 | | |

### Table 4
### Correlated T-Tests (RTAQ/Health)

| | Mean Pre-Test | Mean Post-Test | SD Pre | SD Post | T-Value | (P) | N |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All Students | 36.19 | 34.99 | 4.57 | 5.93 | 2.430 | 0.016 | 157 |
| All Girls | 36.32 | 35.71 | 4.46 | 4.97 | 1.046 | 0.299 | 83 |
| All Boys | 36.04 | 34.18 | 4.72 | 6.80 | 2.287 | 0.025 | 74 |
| 5th Grade | 36.32 | 35.40 | 3.84 | 4.82 | 1.369 | 0.175 | 71 |
| 6th Grade | 36.08 | 34.65 | 5.12 | 6.73 | 2.006 | 0.048 | 86 |
| V-S Teachers | 36.86 | 35.93 | 3.60 | 5.59 | 1.573 | 0.120 | 76 |
| NV-S Teachers | 35.55 | 34.11 | 5.27 | 6.14 | 1.856 | 0.067 | 81 |

SD = standard deviation
(P) = probability
V-S Teachers = pertains to students directed by teachers taking value sharing course
NV-S-Teachers = pertains to students not directed by value sharing teachers

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When scores on Part II, Social Acceptance on the RTAQ, were analyzed the same significant decreases were shown for all students, for boys, for sixth grade, and for non-value-sharing teachers (see Table 5). Again the pattern of every change, including the non-significant changes, is a decrease in scores. Accordingly these results were not as expected.

The IAVCB observations had been recorded on 17 separate occasions. The results showed a greater activity of the values clarification type before value-sharing training for the teachers. This was true for both grades and for value-sharing and non-value-sharing teachers. This also was opposite to the anticipated results. However, the photographic observations show an opposite direction. Since extrapolation from these pictures of actions to trends in behavior would be questionable, none will be made.

**Table 5**
**Correlated T-Tests (RTAQ/Acceptance)**

| | Mean Pre-Test | Mean Post-Test | SD Pre | SD Post | T-Value | (P) | N |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All Students | 37.07 | 35.52 | 6.09 | 6.97 | 2.739 | 0.007 | 157 |
| All Girls | 36.87 | 35.53 | 7.10 | 7.64 | 1.644 | 0.104 | 83 |
| All Boys | 37.28 | 35.52 | 4.75 | 6.18 | 2.294 | 0.025 | 74 |
| 5th Grade | 35.92 | 35.16 | 7.17 | 7.33 | 0.867 | 0.389 | 71 |
| 6th Grade | 38.01 | 35.82 | 4.89 | 6.68 | 3.009 | 0.003 | 86 |
| V-S Teachers | 36.78 | 35.28 | 6.29 | 7.22 | 1.728 | 0.088 | 76 |
| NV-S Teachers | 37.33 | 35.75 | 5.93 | 6.76 | 2.161 | 0.034 | 81 |

SD = standard deviation
(P) = probability
V-S Teachers = pertains to students directed by teachers taking value sharing course
NV-S-Teachers = pertains to students not directed by value sharing teachers

## DISCUSSION

In the self esteem measures most of the positive changes appear to belong to the children taught by non-value-sharing teachers. There are at least three possible reasons why these score changes were not as expected. First, value-sharing teachers exhibited values clarification behaviors prior to their course work. They may have had less chances to exhibit greater use of value sharing in their classrooms. Secondly, there may have been sharing of value sharing course work through discussion and other interactions with non-value-sharing teachers. Thirdly, the second half of the school year would be a time when attitudes toward each other and the school atmosphere are set. There are few vacation periods and school may become a grind inhibiting positive behavior on the part of the teachers and/or students.

On the RTAQ scale, all changes were in the negative direction. Possibly using only two sections of the questionnaire changed the outcome. It is also true that items might have been misunderstood or key definitions interpreted differently from those assumed by the questionnaire. Since the boys' changes were significant, it could be related to the more machismo and sexist orientation of families in this blue collar area. It is also possible that with increased self esteem, the students are more willing to state attitudes not previously expressed or to revise attitudes about trying new experiences. Finally, value sharing may lead students to be more tolerant of risk taking behavior in others.

On the IAVCB scale there was a decline in punishment and humiliating or shaming behavior. This may be attributed to exhibiting behavior classed as more acceptable when an observer was present. To supplement the observational data, sixteen randomly chosen students (four boys and four girls from each grade) were interviewed at the close of the study. Three questions were asked.

- Was there any change in the class since January?
- Was there any change in the teachers since January?
- Was there any change in yourself since January?

Students replied (16 to 0) that there was no change in class; they stated (14 to 2) that there was no change in their teachers and said (11 to 5) they felt no change in themselves. The five who felt changes in themselves said the changes would have happened anyhow; i.e., they were older. Some students reported classmates "made up" stories to use in value sharing exercises to "keep the teacher happy." Perhaps it was too sudden and complete a change in some of the teachers' behavior.

More research on the effect of value sharing training for teachers upon their students is necessary. As a primary prevention technique, long term experiments are required.

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# ALCOHOL: THE GATEWAY DRUG.
# ALCOHOL SUPPLEMENT TO THE DRUG EDUCATION CURRICULUM
*(ED278912)*

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## I. INTRODUCTION

This Supplement has been prepared by the New York State Division of Alcoholism and Alcohol Abuse in collaboration with the State Education Department to address those areas in which strategies for alcohol education must differ from those presented in the Drug Education Curriculum. While much of the material presented in the Drug Education Curriculum is of generic value, there are unique circumstances that distinguish educational strategies about alcohol from those applied to other drugs. Chief among these are the unique system of legal controls on its distribution, and the status of alcohol as the most widely used mood-altering drug by both adults and children. In the past, this unique status had led to differences in the goals and strategies of alcohol education from those adopted for other mood-altering or addictive drugs.

In recent years there has been a re-evaluation of the goals and strategies of alcohol and other drug education, and major changes in the approach to this subject have been recommended. Limitations on the value of the so-called "affective education" strategies have been recognized by curriculum planners, as well as by educators and organized parents' groups. The need to directly address alcohol and drug use behavior, and to supplement these strategies with refusal skills, has been identified.

During the same period, our State and nation have undergone a careful re-examination of policies regarding the availability of alcoholic beverages to young people. The increase in the purchase age for alcohol to 21 set the stage for a review of past alcohol education strategies for their consistency with the new law. This review has suggested changes in both message content and approach to bring about a closer relationship between educational strategies and legislated public policy.

### A New Approach to Alcohol Education

As a result of this rethinking of alcohol education strategies, popular consensus has formed to abandon the strategy of attempting to prevent alcohol problems by teaching "responsible drinking" to school students. In place of this strategy, this Supplement presents messages that discourage the use of alcohol by students and that reinforce risk avoidance and modern prevention concepts. Further information is presented on the levels and patterns of alcohol use that are associated with high and low risks of intoxication-related problems, addiction, and other alcohol-related diseases. This information includes up-to-date facts about the hereditary influences in alcoholism and levels of alcohol use associated with disease.

This Supplement adds a new focus on the special needs of children from alcoholic families. These children are not only at high risk for alcoholism if they use alcohol, but often face unique developmental problems and increased risks of abuse and neglect, as well as accidental injury and stress-related illnesses.

To modify the strategies of past approaches, education professionals will need to re-examine the content and message not only of classroom materials, but also of school social and program activities. This Supplement provides a section on program and policy approaches, including school-based, community-based, and combined efforts to deal with driving while intoxicated (DWI) prevention; identification and treatment of chemically dependent young people; parent education; and community organization.

## The Problem with "Responsible Drinking"

In the past, it has been considered desirable to promote a public and school-based education strategy based on the concept of "responsible drinking" and "responsible decision-making." This concept has held wide appeal, and has been embraced by many in the alcoholism treatment, education, and alcoholic beverage industries.

As a result, school children have been taught that to avoid alcohol problems they should learn how alcohol affects their bodies, know their limits, and should avoid driving while intoxicated. Based on this information, they should make "responsible decisions" about alcohol use. On the surface, the strategy of "responsible drinking" appears to represent a straightforward, well-reasoned approach to alcohol education. The approach has not, however, led to reductions in widespread alcohol use and problems among students.

The "responsible drinking" strategy is fraught with limitations. The strategy recognizes that children are faced with choices about alcohol use, but may presume that the normal choice will be use. The message that non-use is the choice strongly preferred for children by the society may not be presented. Often overlooked is the fact that laws must be broken for any alcohol use by children except under parental supervision. Participation in the violation of these laws may not be discouraged, or even discussed, in the process of "responsible" decision making.

The strategy further implies that "responsible use" is a way to prevent alcohol problems: "responsible," suggesting that some "irresponsibility" is at the root of alcohol problems; and "use," suggesting that non-use (the only certain way to prevent alcohol problems) is NOT a way to prevent alcohol problems. In the application of this strategy, the legitimacy of the choice of abstinence may be ignored; or, as more recently addressed in the message "It's OK to say no," that alcohol is the norm and non-use is merely an acceptable deviation.

Some "responsible drinking" messages do not discourage alcohol use in any quantity or level except prior to driving an automobile, implying that DWI is the sole alcohol problem facing young persons. These messages fail to address other problems associated with alcohol use, such as addiction and injuries, and the other two leading causes of death among young people–homicide and suicide.

While many prevention professionals now view this approach as a subtle form of alcohol promotion, it is clear that the messages delivered through this strategy are at the least mixed and potentially misleading. Consequently, many "responsible drinking" educational efforts may have a neutral, if not negative, impact on preventing alcohol problems. Avoiding both the continuation and recurrence of this type of problem is a principal goal of this Supplement.

In abandoning the "responsible drinking" strategy, the State has recognized the leadership of the National Parent Teachers Association, and other parents' groups, whose policy statement on this subject appears in Appendix A of this Supplement. In asking the school administrators and teachers to follow this direction, it is incumbent upon the State to supply both the strategies and materials that will make for a better approach; one that can be realistically implemented in the schools, and that can be expected to achieve meaningful improvement in results. This Supplement and the teacher training project for which it has been developed represent the first steps in an effort to meet this obligation.

## A Strategy Based on Health Promotion, Risk Reduction, and Prevention and Management of Health Problems

In place of the "responsible drinking" strategy, this Supplement follows an approach based on the philosophy of health education presented in the Health Education Syllabus. It presents information that can be integrated into each of the 11 major conceptual areas of the health curriculum, and supplements the general objectives and learner outcomes of the Syllabus with specific goals that relate to alcohol use and alcohol problems. These goals are:

1. To promote a positive valuing of good health and a complete understanding of the relationship between alcohol use and health.

2. To discourage alcohol use by children and delay its onset.

3. To discourage any alcohol use by high-risk groups, such as children of alcoholic parents, or by persons who suffer illnesses or take medications that contraindicate the use of alcohol.

4. To discourage any alcohol use in high-risk situations, where injury to self or others would be more likely due to impaired judgment or coordination.

5. To discourage any alcohol use in quantities sufficient to produce intoxication.

6. To promote an understanding of effective strategies for identifying and helping people with alcohol problems, including children living with alcoholic parents.

The central goal of this Supplement is to discourage any alcohol use by children. As the typical age of alcohol use patterns changes, the Supplement provides for the presen-

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tation of age-appropriate information that will reinforce this goal. At such points targeted information is introduced on the definitions and consequences of high-risk use and the needs of persons affected by alcohol problems. This is supplemented with information about legal restrictions and consequences of their violation.

This Supplement stresses messages that discourage use without presenting unrealistic musts or exaggerating negative consequences, and that accommodate the real-world experience of children at various stages. Throughout the Supplement an appropriate focus is given to materials that will help to "inoculate" students against pressures to use alcohol, including advertising and other environmental and adult influences, as well as peer influences.

**Using the Curriculum Supplement**

Following this introduction, material is presented in separate sections that address messages about alcohol, classroom activities, and non-classroom programs and policies. The appendices provide information on community resources and organizations, as well as a bibliography of information materials.

The section on New Messages About Alcohol, the Classroom Activity Guide, and the bibliography are all organized by four main topics: Alcohol, Alcohol Use, Alcohol Problems, and Influences of Alcohol Use. This is intended to facilitate the cross-referencing of key messages with related activities and sources of information. The Program and Policy Guide relates the key messages about alcohol to school and community efforts to prevent and treat alcohol problems, including an examination of the mixed messages presented by some existing approaches.

**Your Help Is Needed**

There is growing awareness that alcohol use and dependence represent the most common drug problems among young people in the State. Nonetheless, there remains a great deal of basic work to be done in examining materials currently used in an effort to inform children about and prevent alcohol problems. Uncertainty and differences about appropriate messages and goals of alcohol education remain widespread.

In many communities great progress has been made. There is growing recognition that the appropriate message for children regarding alcohol and other drug use is simply to "say no." Student assistance programs, community intervention training, alcohol-free prom/graduation events, teen institutes and "Safe Homes" programs have been added to or replaced reliance on Students Against Drunk Driving (SADD) chapters and "Safe Rides" programs for teens. Education programs for parents, such as "Talking With Your Kids About Alcohol," are available through local Councils on Alcoholism, which now exist in most areas of the State. New State aid has been made available through the Education Department to support increased school-based programming for students with special support needs, including those who are affected by alcohol and drug problems.

Concentrated efforts are necessary to ensure that modern approaches to alcohol and drug education, prevention, intervention and treatment are made available to all the children of the State. This will require informed action and support from school and community leaders, as well as parents, teachers and students. Increasing levels of support from community organizations will also be required.

With increased emphasis being placed on improved school-based efforts, it has become more obvious that school personnel have not been fully equipped to implement new strategies, and that a meaningful commitment to teacher training is a key to real progress. While teachers alone cannot eliminate alcohol problems among the students of the state, it is clear that significant progress toward this goal depends on the support of informed and interested teachers.

This Supplement is intended to serve as a tool to help teachers do their part, and to assist them in making connections to others who can help.

## II. NEW MESSAGES ABOUT ALCOHOL

This section contains the basic philosophy and messages that make up a well-rounded and comprehensive approach to alcohol education. The 15 messages are categorized in four broad subject areas: the drug alcohol, alcohol use, alcohol problems, and influences on alcohol use. Specific classroom activities relating to each message follow in Section III of this Supplement.

This section provides basic background information for teachers. The appendices will help you locate more detailed information, as well as resources, for each general topic area and message. All of these messages can be presented to students at every grade level, though the detail you choose to provide may vary by age group and even by the abilities of a specific class.

# ALCOHOL

## 1. Alcohol is a drug.

Alcohol is a depressant drug that affects the central nervous system. The chemical compound ethyl alcohol has the same sedative effect as tranquilizers and sleeping pills, and it is toxic. Alcohol is the most commonly abused chemical in the Western world.

Beer, wine and "hard" liquor are all alcoholic beverages. A 12-ounce beer, 5 ounces of wine or a 9-ounce wine cooler, and 1-½ ounces of liquor all contain approximately the same amount of alcohol (0.6 ounces).

When consumed, alcohol goes to the stomach and small intestine where it directly enters the bloodstream without being digested. This alcohol in the bloodstream then circulates to the brain and affects body systems. The body eliminates alcohol at the rate of about one standard drink per hour. The liver breaks down about 90 percent of this alcohol; the rest is eliminated through the lungs and kidneys.

Intoxication is caused by the amount of alcohol in the bloodstream - the blood alcohol concentration (BAC). When alcohol is consumed at a rate faster than the body can eliminate it, the BAC increases. Some remedies for "sobering up," such as coffee, fresh air, and cold showers, do absolutely nothing to reduce a person's BAC. Only time can accomplish that. It is also true that individual reactions to alcohol can vary dramatically because of an array of factors that include weight, eating habits, sex, age, health, family background and consumption rate.

Used in small quantities, the drug alcohol reduces tension and alleviates symptoms of stress. But at a BAC of as low as .05 percent, a person's judgment, coordination and possibly vision are impaired. At very high levels of use, heavy sedation, coma and death may result.

## 2. Alcohol is an addictive drug.

The chemical ethyl alcohol is in itself addictive. If alcohol is used in sufficient quantity and frequency over a long enough period of time, dependence on the drug is inevitable. Addition to alcohol includes the same characteristics associated with addiction to other drugs: craving, loss of control, increased tolerance, physical dependence and withdrawal syndrome.

Approximately one in ten alcohol users appears to become dependent on the drug, making alcohol the second most common addiction after tobacco.

## 3. Alcohol is a regulated drug.

Alcohol is a regulated drug. Laws in all 50 states define and control the legal manufacture and use of alcohol. State and local governments regulate during what times and in what places people may purchase and consume alcohol. Restaurants, bars and taverns must obtain licenses to sell and serve alcohol. Some states regulate retail promotions in bars and stores.

It is illegal to give or sell alcohol to persons under the minimum purchase age. In New York State, parents may allow their own children to use alcohol. They may not, however, make that decision for other parents by serving alcoholic beverages at parties for underage children or adolescents. It is clear that almost all of the alcohol used by children and adolescents is obtained illegally.

Violators of these laws may be arrested and fined. This includes adults who give or sell alcohol to underage children and adolescents, as well as young people who use false proof of age to purchase alcohol.

The sale of alcohol to persons who are intoxicated or known to the seller to be alcoholic or habitually intoxicated is also prohibited.

## 4. Many people don't use alcohol.

While it often seems that "everyone drinks," the fact is that 32 percent of American adults don't use alcohol. Some of these people are recovering from the disease of alcoholism; some don't drink as a matter of religious conviction. Many people don't drink because they don't enjoy the taste of alcoholic beverages, while others don't use alcohol because they don't like the way they feel when they drink.

## 5. Most people who use alcohol, don't use much.

Of the adult Americans who do use alcohol, 61 percent drink less than two drinks a day. Most of them drink less than one drink a week.

Recent studies seem to indicate that up to two drinks a day is a "safe" level of consumption for most healthy adults.

## 6. Most people who use a lot of alcohol develop problems.

Among American adults, just seven percent use 50 percent of all the alcohol sold. Members of this group of alcohol users are at the greatest risk for developing alcohol-related problems and diseases of all types.

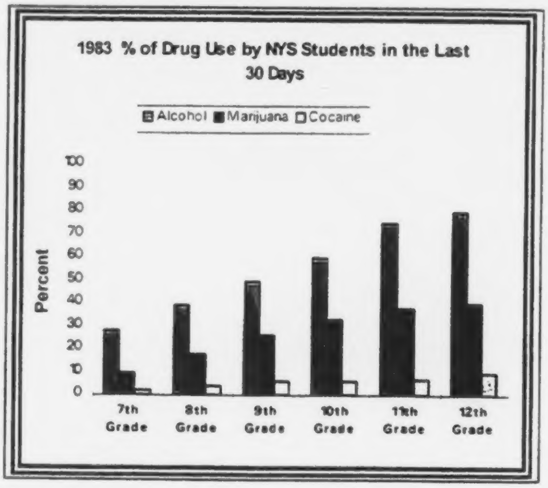
Diseases, such as cancer, heart disease, liver disease and pancreatitis, are related to the long-term heavy use of alcohol. Increased risk for these diseases and other disorders is associated with the daily use of alcohol beyond an average of two drinks a day.

7. **Alcohol is the most widely used and abused drug by youth.**

Among secondary school students surveyed in New York State (1983), 90 percent of males and 85 percent of females have used alcohol by the age of 18. Among 18-year-olds, 38 percent of males and 16 percent of females were heavy drinkers, having five or more drinks at least once a week. Among 7-12th graders, 15 percent were both heavy alcohol and other drug users; for 10-12th graders, this figure rose to 21 percent.

For the majority of young people, the first experience with alcohol use takes place before their high school years. Among New York State students, over half (58 percent) first used alcohol by the age of 12; 75 percent used alcohol by the age of 13.

As the chart shows, alcohol is the most widely used drug by New York State students. Although there are recognized patterns of change in cocaine use in recent years, alcohol remains the drug of choice for young people. As late as 1985, 17 percent of high school seniors nationwide had used cocaine at least once and 7 percent had used cocaine in the last 30 days (source: Institute for Social Research, 1986). In that same year, however, 92.2 percent of high school seniors had used alcohol at least once and 65.9 percent had used alcohol in the last 30 days (source: National Institute on Drug Abuse).



Alcohol is also the "gateway," or entry, drug for New York State students. Alcohol use precedes all other drug use. Unless alcohol is used first, students are unlikely to use other drugs, including over-the-counter drugs and cigarettes. Furthermore, studies indicate that students who are more likely to use alcohol are more likely to use other drugs as well.

## ALCOHOL PROBLEMS

Alcohol problems are classified into three major categories based on the three critical properties of the drug alcohol: sedative, addictive and toxic.

Intoxication problems are related to alcohol's sedative property and are typically associated with impaired judgment and coordination. These problems include crime, suicide, alcohol poisoning, accidental death and traumatic injuries.

Alcoholism (also known as addiction or alcohol dependence) is associated with the addictive property of alcohol and includes those problems that result from the psychological dependence and habituation in the early stages of addiction, as well as those associated with physical dependence (see #9). Alcoholic persons and their families experience abnormally high levels of all types of alcohol problems, including intoxication problems and other alcohol-related illnesses.

Other alcohol-related diseases result from alcohol's toxic property and are associated with the long-term effects of alcohol on human tissue and body organs (see #6). In New York State, more people die from cirrhosis of the liver than in car crashes.

8. **Young people experience alcohol problems.**

Intoxication problems are frequently encountered by young people who use alcohol. In a 1983 study of New York State secondary school students, over half reported being drunk or very high from alcohol during the past year; 10 percent of the students said they got drunk once a week or more. A significant number of the students surveyed in that study reported having problems with friends or getting into trouble with teachers or police during the past year because of using alcohol.

The three leading causes of death among young people in New York State - accidents, homicides and suicide - are all significantly related to alcohol use. Alcohol intoxication is also related to youthful vandalism and fights, and is frequently associated with the illegal sale or delivery of alcohol by an adult.

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Young people are not immune from alcohol dependence problems either. In the 1983 study mentioned above, 11 percent of the students reported feeling "hooked" on beer, wine or hard liquor. Alcohol dependence in young people is frequently associated with the use of and dependence on other drugs. Other alcohol-related diseases are relatively uncommon among young people, however.

## 9. Alcoholism is a disease.

For a long time, people thought of alcoholism as a "bad habit" caused by some personal weakness or lack of willpower. In the 1950s, the American Medical Association and the World Health Organization recognized alcoholism as a disease.

Like other diseases, alcoholism has definite signs and symptoms: loss of control, memory blackouts, increased tolerance, and ultimately physical dependency and withdrawal syndrome. The disease of alcoholism produces specific physical changes in the body. The liver, stomach, pancreas and brain are some of the organs that can be severely affected by alcoholism.

Just like diabetes or arthritis, alcoholism is a chronic, progressive disease. Alcoholism is progressive because it follows an identifiable course. Left untreated it will eventually result in serious physical and mental disability or death. Like other chronic diseases, the symptoms of alcoholism may "go away" with treatment, but the disease is still present in a controlled form. In other words, the disease is in remission as long as the alcoholic person doesn't use alcohol.

Though incurable and potentially deadly, it is important to remember that alcoholism is also among the most treatable of all chronic diseases. Modern alcoholism treatment methods have proven to be highly effective, and offer real hope of recovery to most alcoholic persons.

Most alcoholism treatment professionals believe that recovery depends on several major elements: completely avoiding alcohol and other mood-altering drugs (experienced physicians are knowledgeable about what drugs may be safely prescribed for people in recovery from alcoholism); following a lifestyle that incorporates spiritual, physical and emotional health; and participating in a program of recovery that promotes and supports these principles. Many people find all of these elements in Alcoholics Anonymous (AA) and need no formal professional treatment. Others will require professional treatment on either an inpatient or outpatient basis, usually in addition to AA.

The disease of alcoholism develops as a result of the way the amount of alcohol we use interacts with our own particular body chemistry. Depending on the way our own body interacts with alcohol, it may take a lot of alcohol to "trigger" alcoholism, or it may take very little. Each person, because of heredity and biology, appears to be born with a certain level of risk for developing this disease. For some people the risk is higher than for others.

Research since the 1950s has made it increasingly clear that the genes people inherit can contribute to the development of alcoholism. In the last few years, studies have persuasively demonstrated that approximately one half of all alcoholic persons have inherited a genetic predisposition - or susceptibility - to the disease. Studies of twins and adoptees have shown that children who have a biological parent who is alcoholic are four times more likely to develop alcoholism than the children of nonalcoholics. For sons of alcoholic fathers, the risk is even higher. This is true regardless of the environment in which they are raised.

## 10. Alcoholism is a family disease.

Beyond the role of genetics, alcoholism is a family disease that has a devastating impact on each individual family member and on the family system as a whole.

In any family, the life of each member is joined with and affected by all the others, and may be seriously disturbed by the illness of another family member. This is not just the case with alcoholism; it happens with any major illness. If a parent or child is dying of cancer, for example, it is easy to see how an entire family is affected by and has to deal with the disease.

Because of the stigma attached to alcoholism, families often find themselves living in a virtual state of isolation. Family members may feel ashamed or embarrassed by the alcoholic person's behavior, guilty about not doing enough or even causing the drinking, and often responsible for trying to get the alcoholic member to stop drinking. Sometimes family members will make excuses for the drinking or deny that it is harmful. Frequently, families deny that there is any problem at all.

Depending on the nature and duration of active alcoholism, family members will be affected differently and, like the alcoholic member, may need different types of treatment. Help is available for alcoholic families through alcoholism clinics (covered by Medicaid and all group insurance) and Al-Anon family groups, which follow the same principles as AA.

## 11. Children are affected by family alcoholism.

One out of every eight Americans is the child of a parent who has or had an alcohol problem. Over 28 million Americans share this status, including about 7 million people under the age of 18 and 22 million over that age.

Children of alcoholic families are prone to a wide range of problems, including anxiety, depression, eating disorders, learning disabilities, and a variety of stress-related medical problems.

Children who reside with their alcoholic parents must often deal on a daily basis with family disruption, broken promises and parental inconsistency. They also must contend with the fear, silence and shame that surrounds the "family secret." Some of these children are physically abused, others are neglected, while still others are the victims of sexual abuse.

Often these children are responsible for taking care of themselves, their brothers and sisters, or perhaps even are to blame for their parent's alcoholism, believing that if they were somehow "better," the drinking would stop.

As children growing up in an alcoholic home, they develop a variety of coping mechanisms to relieve the unpleasantness and tension in the family environment. Some of these children do poorly in school, have few friends and frequently get into trouble. Others are overachievers and appear very mature for their age. Regardless of the coping mechanism, these behaviors almost invariably become rigid roles that affect all aspects of the children's lives and can plague them into adulthood.

### 12. Children may need help with family alcoholism.

Children of alcoholic families are a special group of students who are at high risk for adjustment problems, alcohol abuse and alcoholism.

Children living in alcoholic families need someone they can trust to open up to, someone who will listen to their problems and assure them that they are not to blame. Children faced with physical or sexual abuse will need to know where they can go to be safe.

It is advantageous for you to be familiar with the referral process in your particular school and district: when, how and where to refer students who may come to you with a problem or for information.

Regardless of whether the alcoholic parent seeks help, there are services available for children. Alateen, a self-help recovery group affiliated with AA and Al-Anon, will accept children who are 11 years old and over. Alateen groups often meet in junior or senior high schools. Your local Council on Alcoholism can help identify local service providers and programs that assist families and children.

## INFLUENCES ON ALCOHOL USE

### 13. Social influences play a major role in making alcohol use attractive to children.

Almost inevitably, children are faced with the choice of using alcohol that is illegally acquired, that is, alcohol not given to them by their parents. At the same time, children are constantly exposed to messages that encourage them to use alcohol.

Obviously, a child's sense of self-worth and well-being will have an impact on how he or she responds to these influences. Family and cultural background will also influence a child's choices about alcohol use.

By and large, though, the greatest influences on youthful alcohol use come from the media and peers. A Weekly Reader survey in 1983 found that for 4th graders television and the movies had the greatest influence in encouraging alcohol use by making it seem appealing; the influence of other children was second. From the 5th grade on, other children increasingly influenced use, with television and movies remaining a consistent second.

Advertising plays a key role in making alcohol use appealing to young people. Because of its sheer volume and acceptance in our culture, advertising not only affects purchasing decisions, it creates an environment in which beliefs and attitudes are shaped. The most recent figures indicate that the alcohol industry spends upwards of $750 million per year on radio and television advertisements that often depict alcohol use as an integral component of a happy, healthful, successful and popular lifestyle. Television alone weekly reaches 92 percent of all children. On average, teenagers ages 12 to 17 watch 3.5 hours of television a day; for children ages 2 to 11, this figure is close to four hours daily.

As children grow older, the influence of peers on all aspects of life increases. This is a normal part of the process that children go through in establishing an identity separate from their parents. For children an important reason for doing any number of things is to "fit in with others." There are also pressures to "act older" and "have a good time" by using alcohol.

Children and adolescents need to understand the influences that shape attitudes about alcohol use, as well as strategies for analyzing and responding to messages that encourage alcohol use. Lessons and activities that examine these influences and bring them to conscious awareness may help to lessen their impact.

## 14. Life requires choices. Some choices are low-risk; others involve high risk.

Every day we make hundreds of choices. Children need to understand that life provides them with countless opportunities to make pro-health choices. In terms of health-enhancing decisions about alcohol and other drugs, the concept of low-risk versus high-risk choices provides important guidelines that children can use now and throughout their lives.

### High-risk Groups

Certain people, because of special medical conditions or unusual sensitivity to alcohol, may be unable to use alcohol safely. Diabetics, heart patients and persons with diseases of the digestive system are just some of these groups.

Throughout pregnancy the use of alcohol poses a serious risk to the developing fetus. Low birth weight, spontaneous abortion, mental retardation, hearing defects and physical abnormalities are among the variety of fetal alcohol effects.

Children and adolescents are also a high-risk group. They differ from adults in terms of body size, nervous system development, and the liver's ability to handle alcohol. As new drinkers their tolerance for alcohol is low. Also, the risk of organ and tissue damage caused by alcohol is greater in children than in adults.

Children of alcoholic families are particularly vulnerable to alcohol problems, and they are four times more likely to develop the disease of alcoholism than are other children (see #9).

### High-risk Situations

Most people now recognize the danger in combining drinking and driving, but they don't think about the effect of alcohol on other activities, such as baby-sitting, playing or cooking.

There are many high-risk situations where any alcohol use is unsafe. Many aspects of daily life, particularly work and recreational activities, require alertness and coordination. Boating, riding bicycles, climbing stairs, working with machinery and similar activities can be dangerous when mixed with alcohol.

Other risky situations involve times when a person's condition is already impaired by some other cause, such as depression or emotional stress. Using alcohol and medications, such as tranquilizers, sedatives and antihistamines, can also be risky. The depressant effects of alcohol and these drugs can combine to produce a dangerous state of central nervous system depression.

### Making Low-risk Choices

The low-risk, pro-health decision for people in high-risk groups is to avoid using alcohol entirely. Similarly, in high-risk situations, where impaired judgment or coordination can be a threat to the safety of yourself or others, no amount of alcohol use can be considered "safe."

Alcoholism is the third leading cause of death in this country following heart disease and cancer. And like heart disease and cancer, alcoholism has been called a "lifestyle-related health problem." In other words, people can make choices about the way they live and what they do that increase or decrease their chances of developing that disease. Once people become aware of the risks, they can take steps to avoid developing the disease.

People at high risk for heart disease can cut down on high-cholesterol foods, get exercise, quit smoking and avoid stress. These are all "low-risk" choices that reduce the chances of developing heart problems. In the same way, people can make low-risk choices about using alcohol that reduce their risk of developing alcoholism.

There is a safe, 100-percent-sure, low-risk choice to avoid alcoholism and alcohol problems, and that is to not use alcohol. There is no such guarantee with heart disease and cancer. People may still develop those diseases even when they follow all of the low-risk choices available to them. People can't develop the disease of alcoholism if they don't use alcohol. This is particularly important information for children of alcoholic families.

Other low-risk choices available to adults include staying within the two-drinks-per-day limit, and never drinking more than one drink an hour or to alleviate stress. People should also be aware of the warning signs that signal a problem: changing tolerance, an unusually positive or negative reaction to alcohol, abrupt personality changes and any loss of control.

## 15. The only low-risk choice for children and adolescents is to not use alcohol.

# III. ACTIVITY GUIDE

The following activities are suggested for use in developing the alcohol education messages discussed in Section II. Each activity was chosen for inclusion in this Supplement because it met three criteria:

1) encouraged a unified health education approach;

2) used alcohol education as a vehicle for skills in the tool subjects of reading, writing, social studies, math, etc., and

3) created a systematic, conceptual framework.

Most of the learner activities presented are currently in use in classrooms across the State. This Supplement has catalogued them in a new, sequential framework. Many of the activities can be used several times, with only slight modification, for conceptual reinforcement.

This activity guide separates leaner activities into the four topic areas presented in Section II: alcohol, alcohol use, alcohol problems and influences on alcohol use. Twelve activities are presented for primary, intermediate and secondary students in each of the four topic areas, thus allowing for a spiral approach to the broadening and deepening of conceptual development.

The age-appropriateness of messages has been given special emphasis. The continual downward trend of age of first use of alcohol, coupled with the research on early learning, particularly the work of David Weikart, lead to the earlier introduction of alcohol-specific knowledge, attitudes and skills.

Some of the activities presented in this guide require the use of various pamphlets and books. Information on how to order these publications can be found in Appendix C, References and Resources, under the appropriate topic area.

# ACTIVITIES TO DEVELOP TOPIC 1 - ALCOHOL

Messages 1-3

- Alcohol is a drug.
- Alcohol is an addictive drug.
- Alcohol is a regulated drug.

## PRIMARY GRADES

| Materials | Activity/Discussion | Comments |
|---|---|---|
| Chart Paper<br>Magic Marker<br>Paper<br>Paste<br>Scissors<br>Pictures of beverages | Activity 1<br>Brainstorm a definition of "drug."<br>Activity 2<br>Have students make a collage of things to drink. Things to drink are called "beverages."<br>Activity 3<br>Have students categorize the drinks on their collage. Suggested categories include:<br>a. breakfast drinks<br>b. favorite drinks<br>c. drinks that contain drugs<br>For all three categories, reinforce the concept that caffeine and alcohol are drugs. | |
| Paper<br>Pencil<br>Crayon | Activity 4<br>Students drink many beverages that they enjoy. Have students draw and color pictures that answer each of the following questions:<br>a. What drink do you have in the morning?<br>b. What drink do you get from the faucet?<br>c. What drink do you have when you get home from school?<br>d. Which drink is your favorite?<br>Have students put a circle around any of the drinks chosen that contain a drug. | |

## INTERMEDIATE GRADES

| Materials | Activity/Discussion | Comments |
|---|---|---|
| Chart Paper<br>Magic Marker | Activity 1<br>Brainstorm a definition of addiction. (Review with group definition of drug.) | |
| | Activity 2<br>Have students create a collage of pictures of things that are drugs. | |
| | Activity 3<br>Have students create a chart with headings:<br>Addictive     Non-addictive<br>Categorize the collage pictures by listing them under the appropriate heading. | |
| | Activity 4<br>Brainstorm the following:<br>What happens to people when they drink too much alcohol? | |

## JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

| Materials | Activity/Discussion | Comments |
|---|---|---|
| Paper<br>Pencil | Activity 1<br>a. Have students list all the drugs they have ever taken. (Include over-the-counter medication and prescription drugs; drugs given in doctor's, dentist's and opthamologist's offices; drugs included in beverages.)<br>b. Have students put a check over the ones that can be toxic.<br>c. Have students put an "x" over the ones that can be addictive. | |
| | Activity 2<br>Have students write a research-based paragraph on sedatives. | |
| Crayons<br>Paper<br>Sticks<br>Paper bags | Activity 3<br>Have students create a puppet show for young children teaching that alcohol is a sedative, addictive and toxic drug. | |
| | Activity 4<br>Have students create a ten-minute skit around the following situation:<br>A teenager friend of yours convinces an older friend to buy him/her beer. You are invited to come to the park after school and "party" with them. What would you do? | |

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# ACTIVITIES TO DEVELOP TOPIC 2 - ALCOHOL USE

Messages 4-7

- Many people don't use alcohol.
- Most people who use alcohol don't use much.
- Most people who use a lot of alcohol develop problems.
- Alcohol is the most widely used and abused drug by youth.

## PRIMARY GRADES

| Materials | Activity/Discussion | Comments |
|---|---|---|
| Chart Paper<br>Marker | Activity 1<br>Brainstorm a class list of all the situations in which people might drink alcoholic beverages. Decide with the class if it is safe or not safe in that situation. Reinforce the concept that at certain times adults find it safe to drink moderate amounts of alcoholic beverages. However, no matter what, the occasion in which too much drinking occurs is never safe because it affects vision, judgment, etc. | |
| "Pepper"<br>(pamphlet) | Activity 2<br>Read the story "Pepper." After the story is completed ask:<br>1. What happened in the story?<br>2. Why did Pepper feel badly?<br>3. What was wrong with Pepper's owner?<br>4. What helped Pepper feel better?<br>5. Can you think of a time you felt like Pepper?<br>6. What makes you feel better?<br>7. If someone in this school felt sad, like Pepper, to whom could he or she talk?<br>Activity 3<br>Conversation homework - Have students brainstorm at home, asking the question, "Who can help me when I need help?" | |
| Paper<br>Pencil | Activity 4<br>Have students create a list of people who can help them. Make sure they list both home and school helpers. | |

## INTERMEDIATE GRADES

**Materials** | **Activity/Discussion** | **Comments**

Activity 1

Conduct a classroom discussion about:

a. How do you let people know when you feel:

   - happy?
   - angry?
   - sad?

b. Why is it so important to let people know how you feel?

Activity 2

Brainstorm the following:

a. Things to do when you feel sad.

b. Things to do when you feel glad.

Discuss all of the answers given. Help students see positive action as the best coping shield.

Activity 3

Discuss all of the activities people use on special occasions, such as weddings, to show their pleasure (if drinking alcohol is not mentioned, bring in the ritualistic use of alcohol).

Activity 4

Have students write a skit about a special occasion, and act it out for the class.

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## JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

| Materials | Activity/Discussion | Comments |
|---|---|---|
| Alcohol-How Much Is Too Much (pamphlet) | Activity 1<br>Distribute to the class: Alcohol - How Much Is Too Much?<br>a. Have students silently read the selections:<br>- "How Much Is Too Much"<br>- "Getting Drunk"<br>- "Drinking Safely"<br>b. Discuss:<br>- What are America's drinking patterns?<br>- Do most people drink? | |
| Promoting Health/Preventing Disease: Objectives for the Nation (pamphlet) | Activity 2<br>Distribute Promoting Health/Preventing Disease: Objectives for the Nation.<br>Discuss:<br>Four facts about disease that I learned from the pamphlet are ... | |
| | Activity 3<br>Have students write an opinion essay on:<br>How does it make you feel when you see someone who has had too much to drink?<br>Share the essays with the class. Discuss the feelings described in the essays. Do the feelings differ if the person who has had too much to drink is a family member? A close friend? | |

## JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

| Materials | Activity/Discussion | Comments |
|---|---|---|

Activity 4

Divide the class into small groups. Have each group select a recorder who will read the "Where I Stand" statements and run a seven minute discussion of each statement. After each discussion, the recorder places each member's vote under one of three columns:

0 No Opinion
+ Agree
- Disagree

Suggested "Where I Stand" statements include:

1. It is hard to believe something when your friends think you are wrong.
2. Parents are usually right.
3. It is important to limit the amount of sweets you eat.
4. Students don't give each other enough respect.
5. School should be more work than fun.
6. Adults don't give children enough respect.
7. A "get tough" policy is the best approach to a school's alcohol/drug problem.
8. Anyone who drinks alcohol has a serious personal problem.
9. Parents have the right to say what can and can't go on in their houses.
10. It is hard to say no when offered a drink at school or at a party.

Have the group recorders report the results of their group's vote. Discuss the results in class.

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## ACTIVITIES TO DEVELOP TOPIC 3 - ALCOHOL PROBLEMS

Messages 8-12

- Young people experience alcohol problems.
- Alcoholism is a disease.
- Alcoholism is a family disease.
- Children are affected by family alcoholism.
- Children may need help with family alcoholism.

### PRIMARY GRADES

| Materials | Activity/Discussion | Comments |
|---|---|---|
| What's Drunk, Mama?<br>(pamphlet) | Activity 1<br>a. Read What's Drunk Mama? to class.<br>b. Discuss:<br>1. What is drunk?<br>2. What are examples of alcoholic beverages?<br>3. What are some of the things that make Christy angry? sad? worried?<br>4. If you knew someone like Christy, what would you say to her? | |
| Pencils<br>Crayons<br>Paper | Activity 2<br>Have students write a story about their family. Share it with the class. Some students may choose not to share. | |
| | Activity 3<br>Brainstorm the definition of a family.<br>Brainstorm the definition of a friend. | |
| | Activity 4<br>a. Discuss the concept that both family and friends are sources of help. Reaffirm everybody's need for a support system.<br>b. Role play exercise - "Who Can Help" - Have students describe and act out the family member or friend who is there for them when they need help. Reinforce the concept that all of us (teacher included) need help sometimes and need to identify personal support systems. | |

## INTERMEDIATE GRADES

| Materials | Activity/Discussion | Comments |
|---|---|---|
| 12-ounce tumbler<br>Plastic wine glass<br>Shot glass<br>Red dye<br>Water<br>One-ounce measure | Activity 1<br>Lecture and demonstration - Fill each glass with one ounce of red-dyed water. Is the same amount of alcohol (red dye) in each glass? Fill the remainder of each glass with clear water. Ask the class, "If the red dye represents alcohol, which glass has the most alcohol in it?" Stress the fact that each glass contains the same amount of alcohol.<br>Activity 2<br>Have students stand up and spin themselves around. After they stop, ask them to stand still and simply notice how they are feeling. Ask them to pay attention to every part of their body. | |
| Paper<br>Pen<br>Magic Marker | Activity 3<br>Ask students to either:<br>a. Write a story describing what they felt like in various parts of their body after spinning.<br>b. Draw a cartoon about what it felt like in various parts of the body after spinning. | |
| Pablito's Secret (pamphlet) | Activity 4<br>Have students read Pablito's Secret.<br>After reading the story, have them write an essay about what they learned. Read the essays in class. | |

| JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Materials** | **Activity/Discussion** | **Comments** |
| | Activity 1<br>Have students form a committee and create a pamphlet:<br>"Sources of Help in Our Communities" | |
| | Activity 2<br>Have students research and list 12 diseases and the treatments for each disease named. Discuss how alcoholism is a treatable disease. | |
| | Activity 3<br>Assign the following homework research:<br>a. How many alcoholics are there in the United States?<br>b. Do alcoholics work?<br>c. Where do alcoholics live?<br>d. What kinds of families do alcoholics have?<br>e. Do alcoholic parents have alcoholic children? | |
| The Courage To Change (book) | Activity 4<br>Have students read two stories from The Courage To Change.<br>Discuss alcoholism as a disease, based on this reading. | |

## ACTIVITIES TO DEVELOP TOPIC 4 - INFLUENCES ON ALCOHOL USE

Messages 13-15

- Social influences play a major role in making alcohol use attractive to children.
- Life requires choices. Some choices are low-risk; others involve high risk.
- The only low-risk choice for children and adolescents is not to use alcohol.

### PRIMARY GRADES

| Materials | Activity/Discussion | Comments |
|---|---|---|
| Chart<br>Paper<br>Pen | Activity 1<br>a. Brainstorm a list of activities.<br>b. Categorize the activities into two columns:<br>Safe Not Safe<br>c. Discuss the list and the categories.<br>(Reinforce the concept that situations can change the safety of activities.) | |
| | Activity 2<br>a. Have students make a list of choices under the heading:<br>"I Can Decide"<br>b. Discuss what are age-appropriate decisions.<br>(Reinforce the concept that children are not supposed to decide for themselves about drinking.) | |
| Paper<br>Pencil<br>Crayons | Activity 3<br>Have students:<br>1. Write a story about "A Safe Day."<br>2. Draw cartoons for "A Safe Day." | |
| | Activity 4<br>Have students act out a decision they made that was difficult for them. | |

## INTERMEDIATE GRADES

| Materials | Activity/Discussion | Comments |
|---|---|---|
| | Activity 1<br>Have students make a list of all the decisions they made yesterday. (Reinforce the concept that life requires choices.)<br>Activity 2<br>a. Have students review their decisions list. Place a circle around any of the decisions that were health-enhancing decisions.<br>b. Have students create two collages:<br>1. Activities that are safe (low-risk).<br>2. Activities that are not safe (high-risk).<br>In each collage, have students label the activities and explain or defend their choices.<br>Activity 3<br>Have students watch five TV commercials for homework. In class, have students classify those commercial messages according to low or high risk. Discuss them.<br>Activity 4<br>Have students write an essay about low-risk messages. | |

## JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

| Materials | Activity/Discussion | Comments |
|---|---|---|

Activity 1

Have students role play a situation wherein a teenager is offered a can of beer by a friend. What do you say? What do you do?

Activity 2

Have the students respond to the following advice letter:

Dear __________:

My parents are going away for the weekend. My older sister will be in charge. My friends want to come over and have a party. They said we could raid the liquor cabinet. I don't want to lose my friends. What should I do?

"To Party or Not To Party"

Activity 3

Have students make a list of the decisions they have made in the last 24 hours. Have them put an X by the independent decisions; put a check by the health-enhancing decisions; put an O by the low-risk decisions. Have them circle any high-risk decisions and defend their choices.

Activity 4

Have students choose one to do for homework:

a. Prepare for a 20-minute debate on "To Drink or Not To Drink."

b. Clip alcohol ads from magazines and newspapers and bring them to class. Have students describe how ad tries to sell you that brand of alcohol.

c. Watch a TV ad for alcohol and check off how many of the following hidden persuaders are used: glamour, romance, popularity, wealth, maturity, sophistication. What other persuaders are used?

# IV. PROGRAM AND POLICY GUIDE

This section provides information about programs and policies that support the goals identified in the Introduction to this Supplement. Every school will wish to review its programs and policies to eliminate practices that conflict with educational goals and prevention strategies, and to maximize efforts that support them. Such a review can begin with policies for identifying and managing students who have alcohol or other drug problems, and non-instructional school and community problems that may be associated with alcohol problems or their prevention.

Of particular importance will be the examination of approaches to alcohol-related motor vehicle accidents. There remains some conflict over the best approaches to this problem, and it is here where messages that may communicate acceptance or subtle support for student alcohol use appear most frequently.

## SCHOOL POLICIES

Methods for identifying students with alcohol and other drug problems and policies for managing them are increasingly important aspects of school prevention efforts. Schools may find it necessary to modify policies to support goals of appropriate treatment of persons in need of help, and to reflect the school's understanding of the nature of these and other health problems.

### Screening and Drug Testing

Recent attention to drug testing procedures has raised significant policy questions for school districts throughout the State. Schools considering random or mandatory drug screening of students need to be aware of the limitations of various testing procedures, particularly the potential for inaccurate results.

As a general rule, it is recommended that testing procedures not be used unless they are part of a diagnostic evaluation or routine physical examination conducted by a qualified health professional. Where testing procedures confirm the use of unprescribed controlled substances, treatment should be arranged with qualified professionals. Young people believed to have alcohol problems should be screened and evaluated in State-certified alcoholism clinics. Such clinics are permitted to make visits to schools to assist in the evaluation of troubled students.

### Disciplinary Procedures

When a student's academic performance or behavior suggests the presence of an alcohol or other drug problem, steps should be taken to identify and confront the problem immediately. As a general rule, it is recommended that students suspected of an alcohol or other drug problem be served in a school-based student assistance program. Participation in the program should be required as part of the normal disciplinary procedure or may serve as a first-line alternative to regular disciplinary procedures for appropriate students.

Where no such program exists, it will be necessary to engage outside consultation to establish the existence and nature of a suspected alcohol or other drug problem. Where indicated, efforts should be made to reinforce acceptance of treatment as an alternative to disciplinary consequences. Treatment agencies should be expected to consult appropriately with school guidance or health officials.

Community intervention training is a significant aid to the evaluation and improvement of school policies in management of students with alcohol and other drug problems.

## SCHOOL-BASED PROGRAMS

In an effort to prevent DWI, the leading cause of death among young people, many strategies have been developed that seek to limit driving by intoxicated students but that do not address the subject of alcohol use. Some of these strategies assume that students will use alcohol and that adults will permit illegal distribution of alcohol to children in their homes. "Safe Ride" or "Dial-a-Ride" programs have been increasingly criticized for this reason, as have some SADD presentations and some aspects of the SADD "Contract for Life."

Many schools have experienced positive results with their SADD chapters. A number have evolved into programs that discourage alcohol use and de-emphasize those aspects of the "Contract for Life" that imply parental consent of youthful alcohol use. Other schools have by-passed the development of SADD chapters. Instead these schools have sponsored "Just-Say-No" clubs or developed teen institute/peer leadership programs that emphasize education and avoiding the use of alcohol and other drugs.

School-based student assistance programs help students who are found not to be in need of treatment, but whose alcohol or drug use, or life with alcoholic parents, puts them at risk for problems. This type of program is often supported by non school-based approaches such as community intervention training, as described below.

### Student Organizations

**Students Against Driving Drunk (SADD)**

A nationwide program based in Marlboro, Massachusetts, SADD seeks to prevent young people from driving while impaired by alcohol. The program makes use of a "Contract for Life," which is executed between parents and their children. The Contract calls for parents to promise not to drive after using alcohol, and to provide transportation for their children so they can avoid driving in such situations or riding with a friend who is intoxicated. Children promise to call for a ride in such circumstances, with assurances that there will not be arguments at the time. It is expected that the matter will be discussed the next day.

School chapters are usually started when a representative from SADD's national headquarters is invited to speak to a school assembly. Chapters then continue their efforts within the school to discourage DWI.

Information on SADD can be received by contacting SADD National Headquarters, 110 Pleasant Street, Corbin Plaza, Marlboro, MA, 01752 (617/481-3568).

### Just-Say-No Clubs

In some areas of the country, these clubs have been established to provide social support and activities for young people who want to avoid alcohol and other drug use. This is a growing phenomenon. Information on Just-Say-No Clubs can be obtained from Just-Say-No Clubs of America, 1777 North California Blvd., Suite 200, Walnut Creek, CA, 94596 (1-800-258-2766).

### Student Assistance Programs

Student assistance programs provide alcohol and drug abuse prevention and intervention services for school-age youth, with special targeting toward children from alcoholic families. Student assistance programs seek to discourage the onset of alcohol and drug use among adolescents; to reduce the incidence of alcohol- and drug-related problems among adolescents; and to ensure appropriate identification and treatment for youth with alcohol- and drug-related problems.

Student assistance programs will provide alcohol and other drug information to all students. Each program develops a set of unique strategies sensitive to the special needs of the community and school it serves.

Program activities include:

- special education and support for students with alcoholic parents;
- on-site evaluation/assessment services and treatment referrals for those students with alcohol or other drug problems;
- screening services for students not known to be children of alcoholic families or alcohol/drug-abusing, but who exhibit performance problems, as well as referral to appropriate treatment;
- information and educational programs for teachers, parents and the community;
- providing an environment for special program services, meetings of recovery fellowships (e.g. AA, or Alateen) and a site for treatment visits for youth who cannot be treated in local clinic settings; and
- arranging with local alcoholism clinic programs to provide on-site outreach services, including clinical assessments.

Ideally the student assistance program should have identified space for exclusive use in providing program services. Space can be utilized for structured student activities; Alcoholics Anonymous, Alateen, and other recovery fellowship meetings; and occasional treatment visits from staff of local clinics. Student assistance programs are likely to be most effective in settings that also provide employee assistance programs for faculty and staff.

The Division of Alcoholism and Alcohol Abuse provides demonstration funding to establish student assistance programs when accompanied by a plan for self-support, the development of an employee assistance program for school staff, and the implementation of community intervention training. ERSSA funds may be included in self-support plans. Applications for grants are made through local Community Services Boards for Mental Hygiene.

Additional information on student assistance programs is available from the New York State Division of Alcoholism and Alcohol Abuse, 194 Washington Avenue, Albany, New York, 12202 (518/473-3460).

## JOINT AND NON-SCHOOL-BASED PROGRAMS

Community programs sponsored by local Councils on Alcoholism can be of special value in supporting school-based activities. Parent education programs, such as "Talking With Your Kids About Alcohol," and other services of these organizations are described below. The local Council on Alcoholism is the recommended community resource to assist schools in addressing alcohol problems. Help is also available from the local Mental Hygiene Department or Community Services Board, or the NYS Council on Alcoholism (1-800-ALCALLS), which serves as a statewide information clearinghouse.

### Teen Institutes

Teen institutes are peer leadership programs for high-school students and teachers now operating in several states, including New York. Interested students and adult advisors participate in an intensive training program of lectures, courses, workshops and small-group interactions that facilitate personal growth, education and action. Special emphasis is placed on the effects of alcohol and other drug abuse and dependency. After training, participants are expected to work in their schools and communities to promote and implement programs for preventing alcohol and other drug problems.

New York State's version of the teen institute is the Human Understanding and Growth Seminar (HUGS). Open to junior and senior high school students, college students, teachers and parents, HUGS sponsors a variety of specialized training seminars. HUGS participants form clubs that create and develop prevention programs responsive to the special needs of their schools and committees.

For more information on HUGS contact the Long Island Council on Alcoholism, 2 Library Avenue, Westhampton Beach, NY, 11978 (516/288-6655).

### REACH America

"Responsible Educated Adolescents Can Help America" (stop drugs) is a project of the National Federation of Parents for Drug-Free Youth. It is an expanding national organization of young people who receive two-day training seminars in alcohol and other drug problems, and become involved in education and prevention efforts for peers and younger students. You can obtain additional information on REACH America by contacting NFP, 8730 George Avenue, Suite 200, Silver Spring, Maryland 20910, (301/585-5437).

### Safe Homes

This is a project sponsored by local PTA groups who circulate listings of "safe homes" where parents agree to supervise teen parties and ensure that there will be no alcohol and other drug use. The Safe Homes Project was developed by the Williamsville, New York PTA.

Further information can be obtained by contacting New York State PTA, 115 Washington Avenue, 3rd Floor, Albany, NY, 12207, (518/462-5326).

### Community Intervention Training

A major problem in successfully establishing school-based efforts has been the absence of widespread community awareness and action. Community Intervention, Inc. has developed a particularly effective training model useful in increasing awareness and mobilizing community support for student assistance programs and other school-based programs.

Community Intervention, Inc. is an organization specializing in adolescent alcohol and other drug education, treatment and care. Community Intervention, Inc. staff and consultants present special education and training seminars to schools, volunteer organizations and community based agencies. They also provide consultation services in planning effective programming for adolescents and facilitating student support groups.

For more information contact Community Intervention, Inc., 529 South Seventh Street, Suite 570, Minneapolis, MN, 55415 (1-800/328-0417).

### Talking With Your Kids About Alcohol (TWYKAA)

TWYKAA is an 8-10 hour educational program designed to help better prepare parents to contribute to their children's education about alcohol. The program is conducted by certified instructors. The TWYKAA program stresses up-to-date information on alcohol use and problems, including genetic influences and levels of use associated with disease. The program is available for a modest fee from local Councils on Alcoholism throughout New York State. For information contact the local council or agency nearest you that is listed in Appendix B and marked with an asterisk.

# APPENDIX A

## National PTA Resolution on Alcohol and Drug Use by Minors

NATIONAL PTA
700 RUSH STREET
CHICAGO, ILLINOIS 60611-2571
(312) 787-0977

# RESOLUTION

(Adopted by the 1985 convention delegates)

## ALCOHOL AND DRUG USE BY MINORS

WHEREAS, Medical, pharmaceutical and drug treatment professionals classify alcohol as a drug; and

WHEREAS, Alcohol is an illegal drug for minors; and

WHEREAS, The use and abuse of all illicit drugs may seriously impair healthy growth and development of children and youth; and

WHEREAS, The majority of teenage automobile accidents (the leading cause of death for this age group), youth suicides (the second leading cause of death of adolescents), and homicides are drug/alcohol related; and

WHEREAS, The National PTA supports 21 as the minimum legal drinking age; therefore be it

Resolved, That National PTA, its state branches, councils and local units support educational, treatment, or prevention programs that have a positive influence on youth; and be it further

Resolved, That National PTA, its state branches, councils and local units support a no-use message to youth on drugs and alcohol and discourage mixed messages on the use of illegal substances; and be it further

Resolved, That National PTA, its state branches, councils and local units encourage funding, both public and private, for the support and promotion of programs which advocate the no-use philosophy.

# APPENDIX B

## LOCAL COUNCILS ON ALCOHOLISM AND AGENCIES

### What Is a Local Council on Alcoholism?

A Council on Alcoholism is a voluntary (non-governmental), non-profit, health agency supported by a variety of sources including private gifts, contributions, foundation grants, government grants and contracts. It is composed of citizens who volunteer their time to a program of education, advocacy, information and referral, and to the development of community resources and services aimed at the prevention and reduction of alcoholism. A council should be broadly representative of the community it serves. As each community is different and unique, so each council is individual and unique.

### What Are the Goals of a Local Council on Alcoholism?

- Inform the public about the disease of alcoholism through education and information.
- Work to ensure that appropriate agencies focus on the early treatment and rehabilitation of persons with drinking problems, their families and their children.
- Increase public awareness and reduce the stigma of the disease of alcoholism.
- Advocate development of essential services for the treatment and prevention of alcoholism.

### What Are the Objectives of a Local Council on Alcoholism?

- Community Education: To conduct a comprehensive community education program.
- Involve Volunteers: To mobilize and establish volunteer service activities, and serve as a central registry for volunteer services.
- Training Programs: To promote the establishment of training programs for professionals and nonprofessionals. To provide training opportunities and educational courses for community workers.
- Clearinghouse of Information: To collect, prepare and disseminate information on alcoholism and all relevant resources in the community for aiding alcoholics, their families and their children.
- Promote the Development of Essential Services: To promote the establishment and coordination of treatment and rehabilitation services.
- Work with the Media: To promote the preparation of educational materials to be used by all levels of the communications media.
- Speakers Bureau: To establish a speakers bureau, including youth, minorities and women.

## APPENDIX C

## FILM RESOURCES

**NOTE:**

All of the films listed in this section are available from the New York State Council on Alcoholism (NYSCA), Inc. Film Library. NYSCA has a minimum charge of $25, which entitles the borrower to use five films over a 12-month period; there are higher fees for more frequent borrowers. All fees must be paid in advance. For more information contact Mr. Gene Hester by calling at 518/436-1077 or by writing to NYSCA Film Library, 155 Washington Avenue, Albany, NY, 12210.

## TOPIC 1 - ALCOHOL

Addiction Research Foundation, Alcohol--Do You Know Enough About It? Toronto, Canada, 1978.

Channing, L. Bete Co., Inc., What Everyone Should Know About Alcohol. Greenfield, Massachusetts, 1979.

Finn, Peter and Patricia O'Gorman, Teaching About Alcohol, Allyn and Bacon, Inc., Boston, Massachusetts, 1981.

National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism, The Answer Book - Answers To The Most Asked Questions About Alcohol. Washington, D.C., 1978.

Seixas, Judith, Alcohol - What It Is, What It Does. Greenwillows Books, New York, 1979.

### ALCOHOL - TOPIC 1 FILMS

1. "Alcohol" (10 min.)
2. "Alcohol In the Human Body" (14 min.)
3. "Alcohol: A New Focus" (15 min.)
4. "Alcohol and Nutrition" (25 min.)
5. "The Body At Risk" (22 min.)
6. "Chalk Talk" (60 min.)
7. "Just One" (24 min.)
8. "Medical Aspects of Alcohol" (60 min.)
9. "Thinking About Drinking" (15 min.)
10. "To Your Health" (10 min.)

## TOPIC 2 - ALCOHOL USE

Bacon, Margaret and Mary Brush Jones, Teen-Age Drinking, Thomas Y. Cromwell Company, New York, 1968.

Barnes, Grace M., Adolescent Alcohol and Other Drug Use: Empirical Findings With Implications for Prevention and Treatment, Practical Applications, Vol. 3, No. 4, Spring 1986.

Barnes, Grace M., A Double Danger: Relationship Between Alcohol Use and Substance Use Among Secondary School Students In New York State, Research Institute on Alcoholism, Division of Alcoholism and Alcohol Abuse, Buffalo, New York, Fall 1985.

Barnes, Grace M., and J.W. Welte, Alcohol: The Gateway to Other Drug Use Among Secondary School Students. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, Vol. 14, No. 6, 1985.

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Barnes, Grace M. and M. Russell, "Drinking Patterns in Western New York State: Comparison with National Data," Journal of Studies on Alcohol, Vol. 39, No. 7, pp. 1148-1157, July 1978.

Barnes, Grace M., Drinking Patterns of Youth in Genesee County, New York State Division of Alcoholism and Alcohol Abuse, Research Institute on Alcoholism, 1021 Main Street, Buffalo, New York 14203, 1978.

Barnes, Grace M., "Patterns and Predictors of Alcohol Use Among 7-12th Grade Students in New York State," Journal of Studies on Alcohol, Reprinted, Vol. 47, No. 1, pp. 53-62, January 1986.

Blane, Howard T. and Linda E. Hewitt, Alcohol and Youth: An Analysis of the Literature - 1960-1975, National Technical Information Service, Springfield, Virginia, 1977.

DeLuca, John R. (ed.), Fourth Special Report to the US Congress on Alcohol and Health, National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism, 5600 Fisher Lane, Rockville, Maryland, 1981.

Gross, L., How Much Is Too Much? The Effects of Social Drinking, Random House, Inc., New York, New York, 1983.

National Clearinghouse for Alcohol Information, "Facts for Planning No. 1: Prevalence of Alcohol Use Among US Senior High School Students," Alcohol, Health and Research World, pp. 29-40, Fall 1981.

National Technical Information Service, Adolescent Drinking Behavior, Volume 1, The Extent and Nature of Adolescent Alcohol and Drug Use: The 1974-1978 National Sample Studies, 5282 Port Royal Road, Springfield, Virginia 22161, 1981.

North, R. and R. Orange, Jr., Teenage Drinking: The Number One Threat to Young People Today, Collier Books, New York, 1980.

O'Gorman, Patricia and Hazelhacks, Aspects of Youthful Drinking, The National Council on Alcoholism, New York, 1980.

Wilsnack, S.C., and R. W. Wilsnack, "Sex Roles and Adolescent Drinking," in H.T. Blane and M.E. Chafetz, Youth, Alcohol, and Social Policy, Plenum Press, New York, pp. 183-224, 1979.

## ALCOHOL USE - TOPIC 2 FILMS

1. "Alcohol: The First Decision" (9 min.)
2. "Alcohol: How Much Is Too Much" (11 min.)
3. "Alcohol: I Was Going To School Drunk" (27 min.)
4. "America On the Rocks" (15 Min.)
5. Dial A-L-C-O-H-O-L Series (30 min. each)
   "Hotline"
   "In the Beginning"
   "Al's Garage"
   "The Legend of Paulie Green"
6. "Drinking" (21 min.)
7. "Epidemic: Kids, Drugs and Alcohol" (27 min.)
8. Jackson Jr. High Series (15 min. each)
   "Route One"
   "The Party's Over"
   "Barbara Murray"
   "Like Father, Like Son"
9. "What Time Is It Now?" (16 min.)
10. "Where's Shelly?" (13 min.)

## ALCOHOL USE - TOPIC 2 ACTIVITY MATERIALS

"Pepper" - Contact the National Council on Alcoholism, Inc., 12 West 21st St., New York, NY, 10010, (212/206-6770).

Alcohol - How Much Is Too Much - Contact the local Council on Alcoholism or agency nearest you listed in Appendix B.

Promoting Health/Preventing Disease: Objectives for the Nation - Contact U.S. Public Health Service, S. Department of Health and Human Services, Washington, D.C.

## TOPIC 3 - ALCOHOL PROBLEMS

Ackerman, Robert J., Children of Alcoholics: A Guidebook for Educators, Therapists, and Parents, Learning Publications, Inc., Home Beach, Florida, 1978.

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Black, Claudia, "Children of Alcoholics," Catalyst, Vol. 1, No. 3, pp. 5-21, 1980.

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Black, Claudia, My Dad Loves Me, My Dad Has a Disease, Act, P.O. Box 8536, Newport Beach, California 92660, 1979.

Black, Claudia, Repeat After Me, MAC Printing and Publication, 1850 High Street, Denver, Colorado, 80218, 1985.

Black, R. and J. Mayer, An Investigation of the Relationship Between Substance Abuse and Child Abuse and Neglect, National Center on Child Abuse and Neglect, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Human Development, Washington, DC, ERIC ed 175 228, 1980.

Brooks, Cathleen, The Secret Everyone Knows, Operation Cork, San Diego, California, 1981.

Califano, Joseph A., Jr., The 1982 Report on Drug Abuse and Alcoholism: A Report to Hugh L. Carey, Governor, State of New York, 1982.

Cloninger, C.R., "Genetic and Non-genetic Factors in Alcoholism and Sociopathy," American Journal Human Genetics, Vol. 33, No. 6, 8A, 1981.

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Cloninger, C.R. et. al., "Inheritance of Alcohol Abuse: Cross-Fostering Analysis of Adopted Men," Archives of General Psychiatry, Vol. 38, pp. 861-868, 1981.

Coleman, D.H., and M.A. Straus, "Alcohol Abuse and Family Violence." Paper presented at annual meeting of American Sociological Association, Boston, 1979. Rev. ed., University of New Hampshire, Family Violence Research Program, 1980.

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Deutsch, Charles, Broken Bottles, Broken Dreams: Understanding and Helping Children of Alcoholics, Teachers College Press, New York, 1982.

Finn, Peter, "Teenage Drunkeness: Warning Signal, Transient Boisterousness, or Symptoms of Social Change?," Adolescence, Vol. 14, pp. 819-834, 1979.

Johnson, Vernon, I'll Quit Tomorrow, Second Edition, Harper and Row, New York, New York, 1980.

Julian, V., and C. Mohr, "Father-Daughter Incest: Profile of the Offender," National Study on Child Neglect and Abuse Reporting, Denver, Colorado, 1980.

Morehouse, Ellen R., "Working in the Schools With Children of Alcoholic Parents," Health and Social Work, Vol. 4, No. 4, pp. 144-162, 1979.

Morehouse, Ellen R., "Working With Alcohol Abusing Children of Alcoholics," New Perspectives on Youth Treatment, National Center for Alcohol Education, Chevy Chase, Maryland, pp. 56-66, 1982.

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Wegscheider, Sharon, Another Chance - Hope and Health for the Alcoholic Family, Science and Behaviour Books, Inc., Palo Alto, California, 1981.

Williams, Timothy P., et. al., The Relative Role of Alcohol as a Contributing Factor in the Over-representation of Young Drivers in Highway Crashes, New York State Division of Alcoholism and Alcohol Abuse, Bureau of Alcohol and Highway Safety, Research Report Series Number 11, Albany, 1981.

Woodside, Migs, Children of Alcoholics, A Report to Hugh L. Carey, Governor of New York State, 1982.

## ALCOHOL PROBLEMS - TOPIC 3 FILMS

1. "The Alcoholic Within Us" (28 min.)
2. "Alcoholism and The Family" (42 min.)
3. "Alive Again" (15 min.)
4. "... And I'm An Alcoholic" (29 min.)
5. "Bourbon In Suburbia" (27 min.)
6. "Cause The Effect/Affect The Cause" (23 min.)
7. "Children of Alcoholics" - 3/4" Video tape (30 min.)
8. "David: Profile of a Problem Drinker" (27 min.)
9. "Dealing With Denial" (30 min.)
10. "The Enablers" (20 min.)
11. "The Family Trap" (30 min.)
12. "The First Step" (30 min.)
13. "Francesca, Baby" (90 min.)
14. "Have Another Drink Ese?" (16 min.)
15. "If You Loved Me" (54 min.)
16. "The Intervention" (30 min.)
17. "Joy's Story" (12 min.)
18. "Ninety-nine Bottles of Beer" (23 min.)
19. "Oscar" (8 min.)
20. "The Other Guy" (28 min.)
21. "Soft Is the Heart of a Child" (28 min.)
22. "A Story About Feelings" (10 min.)
23. "The Summer We Moved To Elm Street" (28 min.)
24. "The Young Alcoholics" (25 min.)

## ALCOHOL PROBLEMS - TOPIC 3 ACTIVITY MATERIALS

What's Drunk Mama? - Contact Al-Anon Family Group Headquarters, 862 Midtown Station, New York, NY, 10018-0862, (212/302-7240).

Pablito's Secret - Write to Health Communications, Inc., 2119-A Hollywood Blvd., Hollywood, CA, 33020.

The Courage to Change by Dennis Wholey, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, MA, 1984.

**Note:**

Alcoholics Anonymous World Services Inc. is an excellent source for information and publications on alcoholism. The address is P.O. Box 459, Grand Central Station, New York, NY, 10163, (212/686-1100).

## TOPIC 4 - INFLUENCES ON ALCOHOL USE

Blane, Howard T. and Morris Chafetz (eds.), Youth, Alcohol, and Social Policy, Plenum Press, New York, 1979.

Focus on Prevention, Five-Year Comprehensive Plan for Alcoholism Services in New York State, Submitted to Governor Mario M. Cuomo and to the Legislature in accordance with Mental Hygiene Law, Sec. 5.07b, New York State Division of Alcoholism and Alcohol Abuse, Albany, New York, 1985.

Gerstein, D.R. and M.H. Moore (eds.), Alcohol and Public Policy: Beyond the Shadow of Prohibition, National Academy Press, Washington, D.C., 1981.

Hooper, F.J., "The Relationship Between Alcohol Control Policies and Cirrhosis Mortality in United States Counties," paper presented at American Public Health Association Annual Meeting, Dallas, Texas, 1983.

Lillis, R.P., T.P. Williams, and W.R. Williford. "The Impact of the 19-year Old Drinking Age in New York," in Holder, H. (ed.) Control Issues in Alcohol Abuse Prevention: Strategies for States and Communities. JAI Press, Greenwich, Connecticut, (In Press).

MacDonald, S., and P. Whitehead, "Availability of Outlets and Consumption of Alcoholic Beverages," Journal of Drug Issues, pp. 477-486, Fall 1983.

New York State Report of the Joint Legislative Committee for the Study of the Alcoholic Beverage Control Law, Legislative Document, Senator John J. Marchi, Chairman, 1963.

Parker, D.A. and M.S. Harmon, "The Distribution of Consumption Model of Prevention of Alcohol Problems: A Critical Assessment," Journal of Studies on Alcohol, Vol. 39, No. 3, 1978.

Rush, B., M. Steinberg, and R. Brook, "The Relationship Among Alcohol Availability, Alcohol Consumption and Alcohol-Related Damage in the Providence of Ontario and the State of Michigan, 1955-1983," Addiction Research Foundation of Ontario, Toronto, 1984.

Weschler, Henry (ed.), Minimum Drinking Age Laws - An Education, Lexington Books, D.C. Heath and Co., Lexington, Massachusetts, 1980.

Weschler, H., E. Kasey, D. Thum, and H. Demone, "Alcohol Levels and Home Accidents," Public Health Reports 84 (12), 1043-1050, 1969.

Wittman, F.D, "Reducing Environmental Risk of Alcohol Problems," paper prepared for California Department of Alcohol and Drug Programs, Prevention Research Center, Berkeley, California, 1985.

Wittman, F., "Zoning Ordinances, Alcohol Outlets, and Planning: Prospects of Local Control of Alcohol Problems," Alcohol Research Group, Berkeley, California, April 1982.

## INFLUENCES ON ALCOHOL USE - TOPIC 4 FILMS

1. "Alcohol and Young People" (18 min.)
2. "The Alcoholism Film" (26 min.)
3. "All Bottled Up" (11 min.)
4. "The Bottle" (10 min.)
5. "A Call to Action" (14 min.)
6. "Drink, Drank, Drunk" (60 min.)
7. "Falling Back: The Dry Drunk Syndrome" (30 min.)
8. "Feelin' No Pain" (30 min.)
9. "Getting Busted" (27 min.)
10. "Guidelines" (45 min.)
11. "Hollywood Squares" (12 min.)
12. "How Do You Tell?" (13 min.)
13. "It Can't Happen To Me" (25 min.)
14. "I Wish We Could Talk About It" (27 min.)
15. "The Last Prom" (24 min.)
16. "Point Zero Eight" (30 min.)
17. "Test Track" (15 min.)
18. "A Time for Decision" (29 min.)

## VI. EVALUATION FORM

Dear Teacher:

To evaluate the effectiveness of Alcohol: The Gateway Drug, Alcohol Supplement to the Drug Education Curriculum, we ask your assistance by answering the few brief questions below. Your views will be of great value to us in preparing future educational materials on alcohol.

Please return your completed questionnaire by March 31, 1987 so that your responses can be included in the survey analysis. Please mail your questionnaire to Bureau of Community Education and Intervention, New York State Division of Alcoholism and Alcohol Abuse, 194 Washington Avenue, Albany, NY, 12210.

Thank you for your cooperation.

1) Did you use the activities presented in the Classroom Activity Guide? YES ____ NO ____

If yes, how often?

Once ______ More than once ______ Will use again _______

2) Was enough information provided to help you effectively utilize the Supplement? YES ____ NO ____

3) Was the material useful?

I. Introduction YES _____ NO _____
II. New Messages About Alcohol YES _____ NO _____
III. Classroom Activity Guide YES _____ NO _____
IV. Program and Policy Guide YES _____ NO _____
V. Appendices YES _____ NO _____

4) Teacher Information:

Grade ______ Subject (if applicable) ________________________________

School District: Rural _____ Suburban _____ Urban _____

5) Additional comments:

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

# AN INVITATION TO PROJECT DARE: DRUG ABUSE RESISTANCE EDUCATION

*(ED313650)*

U.S. Department of Justice
Office of Justice Programs
June 1988

## PREFACE

In response to the mounting national concern about the use of drugs by American youth, the Bureau of Justice Assistance has funded the development of this publication to inform law enforcement officers, educators, government officials, and other concerned citizens about Project DARE, an exciting approach to preventing substance use among school children.

Project DARE (Drug Abuse Resistance Education) is a substance use prevention education program designed to equip elementary school children with skills for resisting peer pressure to experiment with tobacco, drugs, and alcohol. This unique program, which was developed in 1983 as a cooperative effort by the Los Angeles Police Department and the Los Angeles Unified School District, uses uniformed law enforcement officers to teach a formal curriculum to students in a classroom setting. Project DARE gives special attention to fifth- and sixth-grades to prepare students for entry into junior high and high school, where they are most likely to encounter pressures to use drugs.

DARE lessons focus on four major areas:

- Providing accurate information about tobacco, alcohol, and drugs
- teaching students decision-making skills
- showing students how to resist peer pressure
- giving students ideas for alternatives to drug use

This innovative program has several noteworthy features:

- *DARE targets elementary school children.* Junior high and high school drug education programs have come too late to prevent drug use among youth in the past. Therefore, substantial numbers of young people have reported initiating use of alcohol, tobacco, and marijuana by junior high school.[1]

- *DARE offers a highly structured, intensive curriculum developed by health education specialists.* A basic precept of the DARE program is that elementary school children lack sufficient social skills to resist peer pressure and say no to drugs. DARE instructors do not use the scare tactics of traditional approaches that focus on the dangers of drug use. Instead, the instructors work with children to raise their self-esteem, to teach them how to make decisions on their own, and to help them identify positive alternatives to tobacco, alcohol, and drug use. The curriculum addresses learning objectives in keeping with those of state departments of education and conforms with health education standards.

- *DARE uses uniformed law enforcement officers to conduct the class.* Uniformed officers as DARE instructors not only serve as role models for children at an impressionable age, but also have high credibility on the subject of drug use. Moreover, by relating to students in a role other than that of law enforcement, officers develop a rapport that promotes positive attitudes toward the police and greater respect for the law.

- DARE represents a long-term solution to a problem that has developed over many years. Many people believe that, over time, a change in public attitudes will reduce the demand for drugs. DARE seeks to promote that change. Equally important, DARE instructors help children develop mature decision-making capabilities that they can apply to a variety of situations as they grow up.

For those interested in learning how to bring this novel program to their community, the Bureau of Justice Assistance has also published *Implementing Project DARE: Drug Abuse Resistance Education*, an implementation manual which provides a step-by-step description of how to implement Project DARE as well as model forms and other materials.

The manual is available from:

Dorothy L. Everett
Bureau of Justice Assistance
633 Indiana Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20531
(202) 272-4604

# AN INVITATION TO PROJECT DARE: DRUG ABUSE RESISTANCE EDUCATION

Eva Marx
William DeJong
Education Development Center

America has a drug problem.

It is a problem that exacts an enormous toll in human suffering, in the expenditure of public monies, and, more importantly, in the enormous waste of human potential.

It is a festering problem whose solution has so far eluded us.

Despite urgent warnings from parents, educators, and the mass media, many of our nation's young people experiment with and use a variety of harmful substances, including tobacco, drugs, and alcohol.[2] An annual survey of high school seniors conducted for the National Institute on Drug Abuse found that, in 1985, only 8 percent of students had never used alcohol, and only 31 percent had never smoked cigarettes. Over two thirds of those seniors reported use of at least one illicit substance, with over one half (54%) having used marijuana.[3] Children as young as age 9 report that marijuana is "easy to get."[4]

Until recently, law enforcement strategies have focused on the supply side of the drug problem, with millions of dollars spent each year to control the distribution and sale of illicit drugs. Despite the confiscation of tons of narcotics, and despite thousands of arrests, the drug trade continues to flourish.

Law enforcement experts now recognize that the problem of substance use must be addressed by stemming demand, especially among young people who might become tomorrow's drug users. A recent report issued by the Commission on Organized Crime concludes that the only way to significantly reduce the drug problem in the United States is through eliminating the demand for drugs.[5]

School children must be educated to recognize the dangers of drug use and to resist both the subtle and the direct pressures on them to experiment with and use drugs.

## ARRESTING DEMAND: THE DEVELOPMENT OF PROJECT DARE

In 1983, Chief Daryl Gates of the Los Angeles Police Department (LAPD) recognized that, to prevent substance use among children, he would need the cooperation of the Los Angeles Unified School District (LAUSD). Under Chief Gates' direction, the LAPD collaborated with Dr. Harry Handler, Superintendent of LAUSD, to launch a drug use prevention education program that employs law enforcement officers in elementary classrooms as regular instructors.

A review of existing substance use curricula by Dr. Ruth Rich, a health education specialist from LAUSD, showed that lessons concentrating on techniques for resisting peer pressure, on self-management skills (decision making, values clarification, and problem solving), and on alternatives to drug use appeared to have the greatest degree of success.[6] These methods were incorporated into the DARE curriculum, challenging students to consider the consequences of their actions and involving them in classroom exercises that gave them the opportunity to practice what they had learned.[7]

During Project DARE's first year, 1983-84, ten officers taught the new curriculum to more than 8,000 students in 50 Los Angeles elementary schools. Subsequently, the DARE program, which originally targeted senior-level elementary students (fifth- or sixth-grades), was expanded to include a junior high curriculum and lessons for grades K-4. By 1986, the program had grown to reach all 345 elementary and 58 junior high schools in the city.

Based on this success, Chief Gates invited other jurisdictions to send officers to Los Angeles for 80 hours of intensive DARE training. Officers from 33 states representing 398 agencies have now learned how to bring the DARE curriculum to the children in their communities. Because the growing demand for DARE training exceeds the LAPD's capacity, the Bureau of Justice Assistance plans to fund the establishment of up to three DARE regional training centers in 1988.

The excitement about Project DARE continues to grow. In October 1986, the Bureau of Justice Assistance awarded grants to seven jurisdictions for planning and organizing DARE implementation. The Department of Defense plans to establish DARE in all of its schools for military dependents. New Zealand plans to implement DARE in association with its law-related education program. Other countries, including England and Australia, are investigating the introduction of Project DARE in their schools as well.

There are now a Spanish version and a Braille translation of the student workbook used in the classroom. Efforts are under way to develop strategies for teaching DARE to hearing-impaired and other special needs students.

## PROGRAM GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

**Goal:**

To prevent substance use among school children.[8]

The DARE program targets children before they are likely to have been led by their peers to experiment with tobacco, drugs, and alcohol. By reaching children at an age when they are most receptive to drug prevention education, Project DARE seeks to prevent adolescent drug use and to reduce drug trafficking by eliminating the demand for drugs.

**Objectives:**

- To equip elementary and junior high students with the skills for recognizing and resisting social pressures to experiment with alcohol, tobacco, and drugs
- To help students develop self-esteem
- To teach positive alternatives to substance use
- To develop students' skills in risk assessment and decision making
- To build students' interpersonal and communications skills

Project DARE achieves these objectives by training carefully selected veteran law enforcement officers to teach a structured, sequential curriculum in the schools.

An important by-product of Project DARE is the positive impact of uniformed law enforcement officers, working in classrooms in a nonthreatening, preventive role, upon the image of law enforcement in the community.

### A Program That Works: Evaluation Results

Evaluations of Project DARE in Los Angeles reveal great enthusiasm for the program among school principals and teachers who say that DARE students are less accepting of substance use and better prepared to deal with peer pressure as a result of the DARE lessons. Moreover, these educators find that, because DARE students get to know police officers in a positive, nonpunitive role, they have a greater respect for both the law and law enforcement personnel.[9] Beyond that, students receiving the DARE curriculum in elementary school show greater improvement, compared with non-DARE students, in grades for work habits and cooperation during their first semester in junior high.[10] A short-term evaluation for the National Institute of Justice also demonstrates the impact of Project DARE on the knowledge, attitudes, and self-reported behavior of seventh-grade students who received DARE in the sixth grade.[11] These students, compared with those who had not had DARE, indicated significantly lower substance use since graduation from the sixth grade. Moreover, DARE students, when asked to imagine friends pressuring them to use drugs or alcohol, were significantly less likely to indicate acceptance of the offer than were non-DARE students. DARE students were also more likely to use effective refusal strategies emphasized by the DARE curriculum.

In 1985, Los Angeles initiated a seven-year study of DARE and non-DARE students to assess the long-term impact of the program on students' knowledge, attitudes, and self-reported drug use.

### Key Program Elements

To implement DARE effectively, specific elements are essential:[12]

### Joint Planning

DARE requires the investment and collaboration of both law enforcement and education agencies. The initiative may be taken by either agency or by a third party, such as the mayor's office or a parents' group. However, both education and law enforcement agencies must be involved early in planning for implementation. Many issues are likely to arise during the planning period:

- *Will school and police administrators have difficulty working together?* Schools and police have different administrative styles and are not commonly accustomed to working together. Communities find, however, that a structured program and a mutual commitment to preventing substance use among young people provide strong motivation for pursing this cooperative effort.
- *Will there be resistance in the education community to a law enforcement presence in the classroom?* Police officers are usually viewed as law enforcers, not as teachers. However, DARE officers are well-trained, committed individuals who quickly prove their effectiveness as classroom teachers. When teachers and administrators observe individual officers instructing individual classrooms, resistance evaporates.

- *Are there other school-based programs currently in use or being introduced to combat adolescent drug use?* A long-standing concern about substance use has generated many approaches to prevention education. School systems must choose among many curricula and allocate their limited resources effectively. Other educators or health specialists may be committed to another approach and may not recognize how DARE can fit into the total health education program. To meet these legitimate concerns, proponents of competing programs should be invited to participate in the planning process.
- In Massachusetts, for example, where a strong consensus for teacher-led instruction had emerged, DARE came to be viewed as one component of a comprehensive, multicurriculum health education strategy.
- *How can Project DARE fit into an already full classroom schedule?* Schools are concern that the teaching of basic skills may be neglected as the demands increase to address other topics of social concern. The DARE curriculum, which was developed by health education specialists, is multifaceted, emphasizing basic skills that students must learn to make reasoned choices for good health. Moreover, DARE incorporates the application of language arts into many of its lessons. Some programs have identified ways in which the DARE curriculum meets learning objectives established by the State Department of Education.
- *Can the law enforcement department afford to reassign officers to classroom duty?* Each veteran officer on patrol is important in the fight against crime. Administrators, therefore, need to decide whether assigning an officer to Project DARE is worth the cost of a reduced presence on the street. Law enforcement administrators in nearly 400 jurisdictions, having recognized the limitations of past approaches to our nation's drug problems, have determined that it is.

  One officer instructor can serve as many as ten elementary schools or up to 40 classes per year. Consequently, small law enforcement departments, which may have special concerns about the time required for DARE implementation, will find that an officer can work part-time as a DARE instructor with the balance of the officer's time being devoted to other departmental activities.

### Written Agreement

Implementation of DARE requires a partnership between law enforcement and education systems. A written agreement between law enforcement and school official demonstrates each agency's commitment to Project DARE and defines their respective roles. This agreement generally includes:

- A statement of their mutual commitment to implement DARE as a strategy to prevent substance use among children
- The law enforcement role: to assign in a non-law enforcement role qualified officers who will teach the DARE curriculum in the schools
- The school role: to provide classroom time for lessons, coordinate scheduling, and encourage teachers to support and reinforce classroom activities
- Program scope: the grade(s) to be targeted and the number of schools and students to be reached
- Specification of the agency responsible for providing such resources as student workbooks and films
- Specification of the agency responsible for program oversight
- Procedures for regular communication between the two agencies

### Officer Selection

The high quality of the officer instructors is the keystone of the DARE program. Officers must volunteer for the program on the basis of a solid commitment to preventing substance use among young people and must have a clean record, a minimum of two years street experience, maturity, and good communication and organizational skills.

The officers should be from the local community, where they will be seen and recognized by students. However, when communities are small or do not have resources to assign a local officer, state police or sheriffs' deputies can teach the program. As noted above, this commitment may be part-time.

The selection process generally involves posting of the position, preliminary screening, and a formal interview by a review panel that can include both police and school personnel. During these interviews, DARE candidates frequently reveal skills and experience that have lain dormant, yet qualify them for this unique challenge. School panelists have often commented on how instructive participation in officer selection has been in eliminating their misconceptions about police capabilities.

### Officer Training

Training for DARE officers consists of an intensive two-week (80-hour) seminar jointly presented by law enforcement and education agencies. Several states now offer DARE officer training, using a format developed and certified by the Los Angeles Police Department. To maintain the integrity of the DARE program, it is essential that officers be trained by certified agencies.[13]

The DARE training curriculum includes:

- An overview of current drug use prevention activities
- Communication and public speaking skills
- Learning methodology and classroom behavior management
- School/police relationships
- Police/parent community relationships
- Stages of adolescent chemical dependency
- Audiovisual techniques and other teaching aids
- Program administration
- Sources of supplementary funding

The most important component of the training is the modeling of each lesson by experienced DARE officers (or "mentors"). Each trainee then prepares and teaches one lesson to fellow trainees, who play the role of fifth- or sixth-graders, and who subsequently evaluate the officer's performance. Mentors advise and support trainees throughout the training, by helping them prepare for presentation and offering suggestions for improvement.

Training sites also provide orientation sessions for law enforcement and education administrators. These sessions provide an opportunity for managers to discuss organizational issues associated with DARE implementation and to review forms and systems for monitoring and record-keeping.

### Core Curriculum

The DARE core curriculum targets fifth- and sixth-grade elementary school students who will be graduating into junior high at the end of the year. The curriculum consists of seventeen 45- to 60-minute lessons to be conducted by the DARE officer on a weekly basis. The lessons are structured, sequential, and cumulative. They employ a wide range of teaching strategies that emphasize student participation, including question-and-answer, group discussion, and role-play activities.

The curriculum is designed to equip students with skills for recognizing and resisting peer influences and other pressures to experiment with substances. In addition to building refusal skills, the lessons focus on the development of self-esteem, risk assessment and decision-making skills, interpersonal and communication skills, critical thinking, and the identification of positive alternatives to substance use. A listing of the 17 DARE lessons appears at Appendix C: Page 9.

The DARE curriculum is available only to those officers who have completed certified training.

### Classroom Instruction

Typically, officers are assigned to each school for a full day. Thus, one officer can serve up to five schools per week per semester, or ten schools in a two-semester school year.

Officers are to be regarded as members of the school faculty. This means that, while at the school as DARE instructors, they can be called upon to act in a law enforcement role only in an emergency. It is recommended that part-time DARE officers be assigned to units such as community services in order to avoid law enforcement duties that may conflict with the DARE image or result in court dates that could interfere with classroom obligations.

### Informal Officer/Student Interaction

In addition to their formal classroom teaching, DARE officers spend time on the playground, in the cafeteria, and at student assemblies to interact with students informally. They may organize a soccer match, play basketball, or chat with students over lunch. In this way students have an opportunity to become acquainted with the officer as a trusted friend who is interested in their happiness and welfare. Students occasionally tell the officer about problems such as abuse, neglect, alcoholic parents, or relative who use drugs. The officer refers these cases to the school principal or to appropriate resources in the community.

### Teacher Orientation

The officer needs the support and understanding of classroom teachers to function effectively in the classroom. The DARE officer provides an in-service orientation for teachers at the beginning of the school year to familiarize them with the DARE curriculum, explain their respective roles, and identify ways they can cooperate in effectively communicating DARE's objectives to the students.

Classroom teachers are expected to stay in the classroom during the DARE instruction. Because they know the students well, teachers can share with the officers ways to handle classroom behavior. Frequently they assist with organizing role-play exercises, seeing that students complete their homework, or providing lessons during the week to reinforce the DARE officer's teaching. To encourage such involvement, the curriculum contains extended activities that teachers may choose to introduce.

### Parent Education Evening

The cooperation and understanding of parents are essential to any substance use prevention effort. During the semester, parents are invited to an evening session at which the DARE officer explains the DARE program, describes ways to improve family communications and to recognize and respond to symptoms of substance use in their children, and provides information about available counseling resources. Some communities report that enthusiastic parents have organized follow-up informational drug prevention activities as a result of these DARE officer-led parent education evenings.

### Community Presentations

Police, educators, and others committed to the success of this effort need to ensure that the program is visible and widely accepted. Meeting with groups representing all segments of the community, including parents and civic groups, community-based organizations, housing projects, and local businesses, promotes the level of community understanding and support that is essential for DARE's successful implementation.

Community support may also help to ensure program continuity if a scarcity of resources threatens to interrupt program activities. Community service organizations frequently supplement program resources by paying for student workbooks or by providing student T-shirts, bumper stickers, or other promotional materials that demonstrate the community's commitment to substance use prevention. This kind of support reinforces for students the importance of saying no to drugs.

### DARE Enrichment Activities

DARE's developers have created several activities to supplement the core curriculum for grades 5 or 6.

- **K-4 Visitation Lessons**

  Typically, an officer can teach up to four fifth- or sixth-grade classes per day. As time permits, the officer can visit each of the lower grades to introduce the students to the DARE concept. A K-4 curriculum is available for this purpose. The lessons, each 15-20 minutes long, cover such topics as personal safety, obeying of laws, and helpful and harmful uses of medicines and drugs.

- **Junior High Curriculum**

  A ten-session junior high curriculum, which targets grade 7, has been developed to reinforce the lessons of the elementary level curriculum. To accommodate an already crowded classroom schedule, these sessions are usually taught during the health education block of instruction. In Los Angeles, DARE officers also visit grades 8 and 9. They use timely events--such as the death of Len Bias--to discuss drugs and their impact and to review critical-thinking and decision-making skills. The DARE officer assigned to the junior high school works closely with the school counseling staff on a variety of activities. These include not only formal classroom teaching, but also taking part in individual and group discussions with students considered "at risk," supervising sports or drill teams, and organizing contests and special assemblies.

- **Modified Curriculum**

  Communities do not always have the resources to establish DARE in every elementary school. To respond to requests for a DARE education program in private and parochial schools not receiving the full curriculum, Los Angeles has developed an abbreviated program. This program includes a morning assembly for groups of students from grades 5 to 8, with follow-up visits to individual classrooms after lunch (reaching students at all these grade levels may require several days). Parent evenings are offered to these schools as well.

### What Are the Costs and Who Will Pay?

### Personnel

- ***One full-time law enforcement officer for every ten elementary schools.*** The cost of reassigning a law enforcement officer is generally borne by the law enforcement agency. In some communities, the school department pays the officer's salary or shares the cost with the law enforcement agency.

- *Program coordinator*. Unless a program is very large, the coordinator generally holds another position, such as school health education coordinator or police community relations officer.

**Other Costs**

- *Officer training*. While the Los Angeles Police Department has provided training to the majority of DARE officers, several states have also developed training capacities. This training is generally offered at no charge, but communities sending officers must pay travel, lodging, and meal costs, which may be paid from school or law enforcement budgets. In some communities, service clubs underwrite the cost.

- *DARE curriculum*. The curriculum supplied by the Los Angeles Unified School District is only released to communities with officers who have been trained to teach DARE. The curriculum is supplied either free or at a nominal charge.

- *DARE workbook*. A workbook, approximately 35 pages long, must be printed for each student who participates in the core fifth/sixth-grade curriculum. Depending on the quality of the cover and the number of copies produced, costs range from $1 to $6 per student. The cover and printing costs can be paid by the school department, the law enforcement agency, a local service organization, or a bank or other local business.

- *Films*. The film *Drugs and Your Amazing Mind* is used for the lesson introducing students to the impact of harmful substances. The film *Sons and Daughter–Drugs and Booze* is shown at the parent education evening. Total cost for both films is approximately $900. To reduce cost, films may be shared by communities or borrowed from local film libraries.

  These films may be paid for by the law enforcement agency, the school department, or a local private funding source, such as a service organization, bank, or other business.

- *Handouts*. Officers need to photocopy handouts for students, for teacher orientation, and for parent meetings. DARE officers generally use photocopying machines at the school or in their own agency.

- *Classroom supplies*. Classroom presentations are frequently more interesting to students when there are visual displays. Many DARE officers make posters or transparencies for selected lessons. Supplies may be provided by school departments or donated by local school suppliers.

- *Promotional materials*. The distribution of brochures, T-shirts, buttons, or bumper stocker enhances support for any program. In many communities, service organizations willingly donate these kinds of items.

Money for DARE activities has come from many different sources. Because substance use prevention education for young people is a high priority in many communities, local revenues are often allocated to cover personnel and supplies. In some local jurisdictions funds from the sale of confiscated drug property have been appropriated.

Information about other possible funding sources is widely available. Notices regarding the availability of federal funding appear in the *Federal Register and Commerce Business Daily*, which can be obtained at regional federal officers and some libraries. To subscribe, contact the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402-9731, telephone (202) 783-3238.

State funding may be available through State Departments of Health and Human Services, Public Safety, or Education, or Justice Assistance Act block programs. Many states publish funding notices similar to those available at the federal level.

Information about private foundations and corporate giving programs is available from the Foundation Center through a national network of library reference collections. To find out about the nearest collection, call (800) 424-9836 toll-free.

**DARE AMERICA** is a national nonprofit corporation established to create nationwide awareness of the DARE program and its effectiveness. It coordinates a national funding campaign to supply printed educational materials, notebooks, films, and other teaching aids to law enforcement agencies interested in establishing DARE. For more information, contact Sergeant Jerry Scott, (213) 485-3277.

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1. L.D. Johnston, P.M. O'Malley, and J.G. Bachman, *Drug Use Among American High School Students, College Students, and Other Young Adults: National Trends Through 1985* (Rockville, Md.: National Institute on Drug Abuse, 1986).

2. R.H. Coombs, F.I. Fawzy, and B.E. Gerber, "Patterns of Cigarette, Alcohol, and Other Drug Use Among Children and Adolescents: A Longitudinal Study," *International Journal of the Addictions* 21 (1986): 897-913.

3. L.D. Johnston, P.M. O'Malley, and J.G. Bachman, *Drug Use Among American High School Students, College Students, and Other Young Adults: National Trends through 1985* (Rockville, Maryland: NIDA, 1986).

4. *Education USA*, May 25, 1987, p. 298.

5. *Richmond Times-Dispatch*, March 4, 1986.

6. A.J. Battjes, "Prevention of Adolescent Drug Use," *International Journal of the Addictions* 20 (1985): 1113-1141; J.M. Polich, P.L. Ellickson, P. Reuter, and J.P. Kahan, Strategies for Controlling Adolescent Drug Use (Santa Monica, California: Rand, 1984).

7. Project DARE's core curriculum for fifth- and sixth-grade students was adapted by Dr. Ruth Rich, a health education specialist with the Los Angeles Unified School District, from a curriculum for Project SMART (Self-Management and Resistance Training), a prevention curriculum designed by the Health Behavior Research Institute of the University of Southern California, with funding from the National Institute on Drug Abuse.

8. See also W. DeJong, "Project DARE: Teaching Kids to Say No to Drugs and Alcohol," *NIJ Reports*, March 1986, pp. 2-5.

9. There are three evaluation reports prepared by the Evaluation Training Institute in Los Angeles and written by G.F. Nyre: *(1) An Evaluation of Project DARE* (1984), *(2) Final Evaluation Report, 1984-1985: Project DARE* (1985), and *(3) DARE Evaluation Report, 1985-1986: Project DARE* (1986).

10. Nyre, *DARE Evaluation Report* (1986).

11. W. DeJong, "A Short-term Evaluation of Project DARE (Drug Abuse Resistance Education): Preliminary Indications of Effectiveness," *Journal of Drug Education* (in press).

12. See also W. DeJong, *Arresting the Demand for Drugs: Police and School Partnerships to Prevent Drug Abuse* (Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Justice, 1987).

13. States that have developed this training capacity include Arizona, Illinois, Massachusetts, North Carolina, Virginia, and Washington. Virginia provides its officers with 120 hours of training in order to certify them as classroom instructors.

# APPENDIX A
# SOURCES OF FURTHER INFORMATION

**Bureau of Justice Assistance/
DARE Program Manager**

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Bureau of Justice Assistance
633 Indiana Avenue, N.W.
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(202) 272-4604

**Los Angeles Police Department/
DARE Coordinator**

Lieutenant Rodger Coombs
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Sergeant Mary Tumlin
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Huntsville Police Department
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Huntsville, AL 35801
(205) 532-7254

# APPENDIX B
# PUBLICATIONS

DeJong, W., "A Short-Term Evaluation of Project DARE (Drug Abuse Resistance Education): Preliminary Indications of Effectiveness." *Journal of Drug Education* (in press).

*Arresting the Demand for Drugs: Police and School Partnerships to Prevent Drug Abuse.* Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Justice, 1987.

"Project DARE: Teaching Kids to Say No to Drugs and Alcohol." *NIJ Reports*, March 1986, pp.2-5.

Gates, Daryl F. "Educators + Police = DARE." NJASA Perspective. no. 4 (Spring 1987): 7

"Drug Abuse Resistance Education." *The Police Chief*, October 1986.

"LAPD's Project DARE." *School Safety*, Spring 1986, pp. 26-27.

"DARE Program." *California Fraternal Order of Police* Journal, 6, no.2 (Spring 1985): 47-53.

U.S. Department of Education. *What Works: Schools Without Drugs.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, 1986. Describes model approaches to drug abuse prevention, including DARE, an contains an extensive list of publications. Available free of charge by calling (800) 624-0100 or writing Schools Without Drugs, Pueblo, CO 81009.

Contact also:

Office of Substance Abuse Prevention
U.S. Department of Health and Human Services
Parklawn Building
5600 Fishers Lane
Rockville, MD 20852
(301) 443-0365

# APPENDIX C
# DARE LESSONS

The DARE curriculum is organized into seventeen classroom sessions conducted by the police officer, coupled with suggested activities taught by the regular classroom teacher. A wide range of teaching activities are used--question-and-answer, group discussion, role-play, and workbook exercises, all designed to encourage student participation and response.

The following brief summaries of each lesson capture the scope of the DARE curriculum and show the care taken in its preparation. All of these lessons were pilot tested and revised before widespread use began.

1. ***Practices for Personal Safety.*** The DARE officer reviews common safety practices protect students from harm at home, on the way to and from school, and in the neighborhood.

2. ***Drug Use and Misuse.*** Students learn the harmful effects of drugs if they are misused as depicted in the film, Drugs and Your Amazing Mind.

3. ***Consequences.*** The focus is on the consequences of using and not using alcohol and marijuana. If students are aware of those consequences, they can make better informed decisions regarding their own behavior.

4. ***Resisting Pressures to Use Drugs.*** The DARE officer explains different types of pressure--ranging from friendly persuasion and teasing to threats--that friends and others can exert on students to try tobacco, alcohol, or drugs.

5. ***Resistance Techniques**: Ways to Say No.* Students rehearse the many ways of refusing offers to try tobacco, alcohol, or drugs--simply saying no and repeating it as often as necessary; changing the subject; walking away or ignoring the person. They learn that they can avoid situations in which they might be subjected to such pressures and can "hang around" with non-users.

6. ***Building Self-Esteem.*** Poor self-esteem is one of the factors associated with drug misuse. How students feel about themselves results from positive and negative feelings and experiences. In this session students learn about their own positive qualities and how to compliment other students.

7. ***Assertiveness: A Response Style.*** Students have certain rights--to be themselves, to say what they think, to say no to offers of drugs. The session teaches them to assert those rights confidently and without interfering with others' rights.

8. ***Managing Stress Without Taking Drugs.*** Students learn to recognize sources of stress in their lives and techniques for avoiding or relieving stress, including exercise, deep breathing, and talking to others. They learn that using drugs or alcohol to relieve stress causes new problems.

9. ***Media Influences on Drug Use.*** The DARE officer reviews strategies used in the media to encourage tobacco and alcohol use, including testimonials from celebrities and social pressure.

10. ***Decision-Making and Risk-Taking.*** Students learn the difference between bad risks and responsible risks, how to recognize the choices they have, and how to make a decision that promotes their self-interests.

11. ***Alternatives to Drug Abuse.*** Students learn that to have fun, to be accepted by peers, or to deal with feelings of anger or hurt, there are a number of alternatives to using drugs and alcohol.

12. ***Role Modeling.*** A high school student selected by the DARE officer visits the class, providing students with a positive role model. Students learn that drug users are in the minority.

13. ***Forming a Support System.*** Students learn that they need to develop positive relationships with many different people to form a support system.

14. ***Ways to Deal with Pressures from Gangs.*** Students discuss the kinds of pressures they may encounter from gang members and evaluate the consequences of the choices available to them.

15. ***Project DARE Summary.*** Students summarize and assess what they have learned.

16. ***Taking a Stand.*** Students compose and read aloud essays on how they can respond when they are pressured to use drugs and alcohol. The essay represents each student's "DARE pledge."

17. ***Culmination.*** In a schoolwide assembly planned in concert with school administrators, all students who have participated in Project DARE receive certificates of achievement.

# SOFTWARE FOR SUBSTANCE ABUSE EDUCATION: A CRITICAL REVIEW OF PRODUCTS

*(ED303702)*

Dave Weaver

MicroSIFT
and
The Western Center for Drug-Free
Schools and Communities

Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory

October 1988

## OUR FINDINGS

The Evaluation Summary Table on the following page gives the final scores each package received on each evaluation criteria used. The overall results are somewhat disappointing for a variety of reasons.

- The Tutorials - Most of the packages (11 out of the 18) were linear tutorials which involved little more than a series of text screens followed by one or more questions on the materials presented. Generally, the questions were either multiple-choice or true/false. Branching was absolutely minimal, progressing to the next step regardless of how well the student did on the questions. A few of the packages (Marshware products) employ loop-back type branching which simply takes the student back to the screen in the tutorial containing the answer to the question he/she missed. Most of the packages make up for the lack of branching with detailed feedback on every student response (products from SAE and Queue). In this case the student receives a text narrative explaining why he/she was right or wrong before the program advances to the next part of the tutorial. All of the tutorials were very text-intensive requiring a considerable amount of reading. Graphics were used to enhance the text presentation with varying degrees of success and the packages from SAS and Marshware doing the better job. In general, the tutorials were said to be boring (note low scores under "Motivating") and did not engage the student.

- Illegal and Harmful - Most of the packages reviewed did a fairly good job at stressing the harmful effects of alcohol and other drug use. But, if this were the only message delivered, the implication would be that the students have a choice about using substances. What is frequently omitted is that alcohol and other drug use is illegal for young people. Legality was addressed in a few instances but only in terms of what the law says about drug use. The school should be stressing "no use." Research has shown that activities which focus on decision-making about substance use where pros and cons of use are indicated, give students conflicting messages (Klitzner 1987). Decision-making is an effective prevention approach when it is focused on "social problem-solving" and planning.

- Target Audience - The tutorials and the game programs use a knowledge-based approach. That is, they present facts about the effects of alcohol and other drug use. The method, done in isolation, will have little impact on student use. In fact, it may even increase student use by raising awareness of the effects of substances (Klitzner 1987, Benard 1986). Successful approaches to prevention programs include a balance of peer resistance skills, alternative activities, and information about alcohol and other drugs. This is difficult to simulate on a computer but is done with some success in "Alcohol: 4 Interactive Programs," "Drugs: Their Effects On You," and "Drugs: Who's In Control?"

- Two critical audiences for substance abuse prevention programs are middle school and "at-risk" students. Middle school students are in a transition period and if we are able to delay use past these critical years, a student is less likely to abuse alcohol or other drugs in high school and later years. Social skills programs at this age are especially appropriate (Benard 1986). Adolescence is a high-risk period for all youth but, students who are statistically "at-risk" to using substances because of factors such as low academic achievement, parental use, or low socioeconomic status, may not be motivated by the tutorial approach of most of these packages. It is important that a student who is identified as being at-risk to using alcohol and other drugs not be isolated and stigmatized but integrated into a healthy peer group. The programs which encourage group participation would be more effective for this audience.

Any successful substance abuse curriculum will have components in place at every grade level. None of these programs were intended to be comprehensive. We have noted appropriate audiences for each program and where each would fit in a comprehensive curriculum.

- Documentation - Another consistently low-scoring category was the supplementary materials which accompany the program disk. In many cases the documentation was almost nonexistent and included minimal information for using the program. In most cases, little information was found which really gave the teacher enough information to make effective use of the package in a classroom setting.

On the brighter side, there were a few points where the products were generally very good. These include:

- Content Accuracy - The content which was presented was generally very accurate with the only negative aspect being a tendency to overemphasize the harmful effects
- Stereotyping - Very little race, sex, or ethnic stereotyping was noted
- Ease of Use - Almost all of the packages were very easy to use (Apple versions, especially)

There were a few products which caught the attention of the reviewers and are worthy of further consideration. For the reasons stated above and because of the differences in teaching styles, we strongly recommend previewing a package prior to purchase.

- Alcohol, An Educational Simulation - The Party - This simulation provides an excellent opportunity for students to see how social drinking effects blood/alcohol level (BAL) and its subsequent influence on behavior and consequences.
- Drugs: Who's In Control - This large-group activity provides an opportunity to discuss and apply peer resistance skills.
- Drugs: Their Effects On You - This package is worth considering because even though it is strictly a tutorial, it does one of the better jobs at introducing resistance techniques.
- Alcohol: 4 Interactive Programs and Alcohol and Pregnancy: Protecting the Unborn Child - Both of these programs are tutorials covering similar materials but are intended for different audiences. Although not exemplary, both are recommended because of their thorough coverage of the material and because both address peer refusal skills.

# EVALUATION SUMMARY TABLE

**KEY: 5 - Exemplary; 4 - Very Good; 3 - Good; 2 - Fair; 1 - Poor; N - Does Not Apply**

| PACKAGE TITLE | Content is Accurate | Cognitive & Behavioral Approaches | Stresses Illegal & Harmful | Free of Stereotyping | Not Time-bound | Content Rating | Appropriate Difficulty Level | Curricular Fit | Clear Goals & Objectives | Program is Effective | Clear & Logical Presentation | Graphics, Color & Sound | Motivating | Effective Feedback | Self-Pacing | Error Handling | Instructional Rating | Comprehensive Support Materials | Effective Support Materials | Well-done Screen Displays | Easy to Learn & Use | Teacher Can Easily Employ | Appropriate use of Computer | Reliability | Technical Rating | Overall Rating |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Alcohol & Pregnancy | 3 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 3 |
| Alcohol, An Educational Simulation - The Party | 4 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4 |
| Alcohol: 4 Interactive Programs | 3 | 4 | 4 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 4 | 3 |
| BARN: Alcohol & Other Drugs | NOT EVALUATED | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Cocaine | 3 | 3 | 2 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 2 |
| Dangers of Drugs, The | 3 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 2 |
| Drinking & Not Drinking: The Choice is Yours - Alcohol | 3 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 2 |
| Drug Abuse | 4 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 4 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| Drug Alert! | 3 | 2 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 4 | 3 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| Drug Pursuit I & II | 2 | 2 | 1 | N | 2 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| Drugs & Heartbeat: Experiments with a Daphnia | 3 | 4 | 1 | N | 5 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 4 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 5 | 2 | 3 | 3 |
| Drugs: Their Effects On You | 3 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 4 | 3 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 4 | 3 | 3 |
| Drugs: Who's In Control | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 3 | N | 2 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 4 |
| Great Knowledge Race, The: Substance Abuse | 3 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | N | 3 | 3 | 1 | N | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 3 | 3 |
| Introduction to Psychoactive Drugs | 4 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 2 | 1 | 4 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 2 |
| Keep Off The Grass: Marijuana | 4 | 3 | 2 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 2 |
| Six Classes of Psychoactive Drugs | 3 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| Substance Abuse Support Group Data Base | 4 | N | N | N | 3 | 3 | 3 | N | N | N | N | N | N | N | N | N | N | 1 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| TUTORSYSTEMS: Alcohol & Health | 3 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| AVERAGE | 3.3 | 2.8 | 2.5 | 3.7 | 3.5 | 3.0 | 2.4 | 2.9 | 3.1 | 2.5 | 2.9 | 2.6 | 2.1 | 2.5 | 2.9 | 2.7 | 2.4 | 2.1 | 2.1 | 3.1 | 3.3 | 3.1 | 2.8 | 3.0 | 2.7 | 2.6 |
| | CONTENT CHARACTERISTICS | | | | | | INSTRUCTIONAL CHARACTERISTICS | | | | | | | | | | | TECHNICAL CHARACTERISTICS | | | | | | | | |

# PRODUCT DESCRIPTIONS

## Alcohol and Pregnancy: Protecting The Unborn Child

**Student Awareness Software**
**Hardware:** 48K Apple II + e c. 256K IBM PC — $89.95
**Audience:** Grades 7 - Adult — Copyright: 1988

| | |
|---|---|
| Description: | The package contains two double-sided program disks, a Teacher's Notebook disk, a five-page program syllabus, and a five-page user's manual. Disk 1 covers "Planning For A Healthy Baby," "A Historical Overview," "Fetal Alcohol Syndrome and Fetal Alcohol Effects," "Alcohol and the Human Body," and "Nutrients & Oxygen: Two Important Factors." Disk 2 covers "Fetal Alcohol Exposure," "Nutrition and Fetal Growth," "Questions, Myths, and Answers," "The Maternity Counselor Workshop," and a comprehensive review. The Teacher's Notebook disk is used to review student scores and add information about local counseling resources. Each of the program disks provides interactive tutorials interspersed with games and activities which allow the student the opportunity to apply the information covered in the tutorial. |
| Possible Uses: | This package would be useful at the high school level and can be used by one to possibly three students at a time. |
| Strengths: | The package does a thorough job of covering the materials (including peer refusal skills), is very well-organized, and easy to use. The ""Workshop" activities and games give students the opportunity to apply what has been presented. |
| Weaknesses: | Use of the package requires considerable reading and repetition with little interaction on the part of the student. The program accesses the disk frequently making it run slowly. Because the teacher cannot speed up text presentation, it is slow for faster readers. Students just receive the message "Incorrect" if they enter a wrong answer. The package doe not address the illegal aspect of drinking. |

## Alcohol, An Educational Simulation - The Party

**Marshware**
**Hardware:** 48K Apple II + e c GS — $52.45
**Audience:** Grades 6-8 — Copyright: 1984

| | |
|---|---|
| Description: | This package consists of one disk and a 17-page user manual with one reproducible data recording form, detailed program instructions, and instructions to the teacher. The software contains an interactive tutorial and a simulation. In the tutorial, the student is presented with a series of 12 multiple-choice questions. After each response the student receives informative text passages which either correct the student or provide further clarification. "The Party" is a simulation of a social gathering where the guests make decisions about alcohol consumption and see the results of their decision. The guest list includes from one to six individual students or groups of students plus a number of guests whose role is determined by the computer. Students must enter their name, age, weight, and sex, and the same personal data for the other guest played by the computer is also revealed. The party begins at 7:00 pm and continues until 12:00 pm. Each hour guests decide the number and type of beverage they plan to consume during the period, whether they plan to gulp or sip the drink, and whether or not they will be eating any pizza. After the students have entered their decisions, a graph is displayed for each guest revealing his/her blood alcohol concentration at the end of the hour together with a report of their feelings and behavior. Next the guests play a video game which reveals the effect of the blood alcohol concentration on their performance. Other events which could occur during the party include a police raid, guests becoming ill, or a guest passing out and being taken to the hospital. At midnight all guests must go home by choosing to drive, call a cab, call a friend, or ask another guest for a ride. Depending on the condition of the driver, he/she could arrive home safely, be stopped by police, or be involved in an accident. |
| Possible Uses: | The simulation works with as many as six students or groups of students at a time, however, four is really the ideal. The program fits nicely into the health curriculum. |
| Strengths: | The tutorial presents a lot of good information. The simulation provides an engaging approach to the subject which is both motivating and relevant to students. The presence of other "guests" which the students can observe is an effective feature which allows them to see how alcohol affects individuals of various ages and physical size. |
| Weaknesses: | It is possible to set the age of a guest as low as seven and the program gives no warning of the illegality of drinking at that age. |

**Comments:** One reviewer commented that sometimes students have a tendency to "drink more" and rush through the program to see how the alcohol would affect them in the video game and going home. This may have a positive or negative effect depending on the attitudes of the students.

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**Alcohol: 4 Interactive Programs**
**Student Awareness Software**
**Hardware: 48K Apple II + e c, 256K IBM PC** **$89.95**
**Audience: Grades 7-12** **Copyright: 1987**

**Description:** The package contains four double-sided program disks, a Teacher's Notebook disk, a 17-page program syllabus, and a 67-page user's manual. Program 1, "Alcohol and Your Health," covers a brief history of alcohol, proof, the physical effects of alcohol, and the factors which influence the effect. Program 2, "Drinking: Risks and Decisions," covers who does and does not drink, reasons for drinking, peer pressure, BAL, noticeable effects of alcohol, and dangers of alcohol. Program 3, "Drinking, Driving and You," covers the effects of alcohol on vision, reactions, and judgement handicapping his/her driving ability; drinking and driving laws, punishments, and fines; and the price you pay for drinking. Program 4, "Questions, Myths, and Answers," provides additional current information designed to dispel commonly held myths about alcohol use. In addition, Program 4 includes a section where students can request additional information about alcohol-related subjects and/or receive information about local drug and alcohol counseling resources. The requests entered by students may be accessed confidentially by the teacher using the Teacher's Notebook disk. The Teacher's Notebook disk is also used to create printed student worksheets, review student scores, and add information about local drug and alcohol resources. Each of the program disks provides interactive tutorials interspersed with games and activities which allow the student the opportunity to apply the information covered in the tutorial. Each program concludes with a review of the material covered. This product is also available from Focus Media under the title "Alcohol: Making the Choice."

**Possible Uses:** Components of this package are useful in health, driver's education, and career education at the high school level and can be used by one to possibly three students at a time.

**Strengths:** The package does a thorough job of covering the materials (including peer resistance skills), is very well-organized and easy to use. The "Workshop" activities and games give students the opportunity to apply what has been presented.

**Weaknesses:** Use of the package requires considerable reading. The program accesses the disk, frequently making it run slowly. Because the teacher cannot speed up the text presentation, it is slow for faster readers. Students just receive the message "Incorrect" if they enter a wrong answer. The package tends to overstate the effects of alcohol and the legal information varies between states.

**Comments:** The program talks down to the students making it more appropriate for use with junior high school students.

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**Body Awareness Resource Network (BARN): Alcohol & Other Drugs Module**
**Learning Multi-Systems**
**Hardware: 64K Apple II + e c GS** **$120.00**
**Audience: Grades 6-12** **Copyright: 1985**

**Description:** The package contains five disks and an administrator's manual. The Alcohol and Other Drugs Module contains two tutorials, a quiz, a decision-making activity, two games, and a resource list. The interactive tutorials are titled "Use/Abuse/Dependency" and "Overdose: What To Do." The decision-making activities explores "Should I? (Use This Drug)" The game "You Bet Your Life," is a simulation of events of a party. The Game "Stay On Track" explores the consequences of drinking and driving. The "Help" section enables the teacher to enter information about local and national drug and alcohol prevention resources. "Alcohol & Other Drugs" is one of six modules in the "Body Awareness Resource Network." The entire series is available for $720.00. This package was not received in time to review.

**Cocaine (SAE-7)**
**SAE Software**
**Hardware:** 64K Apple II family, IBM PC
**Audience:** Grades 7-12
**$39.95**
**Copyright: 1988**

**Description:** The package contains one disk, and a booklet of start-up instructions. The program provides a list of objectives, tutorial lessons, a glossary of terms, a 10-question, multiple-choice self-test, a game, and a "Special Interests" file into which students may enter confidential messages, concerns, or questions to the teacher. The teacher may view or print the contents of the "Special Interests" file at a later time. The tutorials cover the basic concepts of cocaine, the dangers of using cocaine, what cocaine is, and what cocaine does. Each tutorial is a mixture of text and graphic screens and multiple-choice questions. An explanation is given after every response to a question. In the IBM version the student has the option of reading the explanation to the other responses or proceeding with the tutorial. In the game "Snowblind," students may play the role of a 17-year-old high school male, a 22-year-old college female, or a 38-year-old male account executive. In each case, he/she is confronted with a series of situations involving cocaine in which he/she must choose what to do from a number of options. The student wins if he/she avoids cocaine use and loses if he/she gets hooked.

**Possible Uses:** This package is useful with highly motivated students, one student or a small group of students at a time.

**Strengths:** In the IBM version the students may move forward or backward in the sequence of lessons. The "Special Interest" file is a good idea, however, it is poorly implemented. The glossary is a helpful feature.

**Weaknesses:** The lessons are a linear sequence with no branching or randomization of questions.

User interface on the IBM version is clumsy and inconsistent. For example, to proceed to the next screen the program inconsistently uses the "P," "+," or "Enter" keys. Other times menus work with a single response or they require pressing "Enter" after making a selection.

Entering comments in the "Special Interest" file is very awkward. There is no word wrap nor is there any way to edit your statement without completely re-entering or erasing from the end.

**Comments:** The package employs only a cognitive approach to learning.

**Danger of Drugs, The**
**Queue**
**Hardware:** 48K Apple II series, 64K IBM PC management system (Apple)
**Audience:** 3rd or 4th grade reading level or above
**$49.95, $59.95 with**
**Copyright: 1987**

**Description:** The package consist of one disk and a 14-page user's manual. The disk provides 10 tutorials, each of which is a series of text passages followed by one or more related multiple-choice, true/false, fill-in-the-blank questions. "Introduction: defines prescription and over-the-counter drugs and gives an overview of the five most widely abused categories of drugs. "Opiates" includes heroin, morphine, opium, and codeine. "Marijuana" discusses marijuana and hashish. "Alcohol" discusses the short- and long-term effects of alcohol abuse and the recovering alcoholic. "Sedatives" discusses barbiturates and tranquilizers and the dangers of combining them with alcohol. "Stimulants and Vapors" discusses cocaine, caffeine and harmful vapors. "Antihistamines" discusses antihistamines and the adverse effects of smoking and chewing tobacco. Two other programs cover "LSD and PCP" and "Amphetamines." The "Review" identifies various federal and local organizations established to help drug and alcohol abusers. The number correct and incorrect and the percentage correct is given upon completion of each exercise. A Management system is available for the Apple version.

**Possible Uses:** This package is written at a third and fourth grade reading level and is most appropriate for use with individual students.

**Strengths:** Covers a wide variety of drugs except crack and focuses on the harmful effects. Students are given correct responses and an explanation each time he/she gives an incorrect answer. The package is easy for both the student and teacher to use.

**Weaknesses:** The lessons are a linear sequence with no branching or randomization of questions. The instructional format of text followed by questions without any variation or graphics is very uninteresting. The sound cannot be turned off.

**Comments:** The package does not address refusal skills at all.

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## PRODUCT DESCRIPTIONS

**Drinking & Not Drinking: The Choice is Yours - Alcohol (SAE-1)**
**SAE Software**
**Hardware: 64K Apple II family, IBM PC** **$39.95**
**Audience: Grades 7-12** **Copyright: 1988**

**Description:** The package contains one disk and a booklet of start-up instructions. The program provides a list of objectives, tutorial lessons, a glossary of terms, a 20-question, multiple-choice self-test, and a "Special Interests" file into which students may enter confidential messages, concerns, or questions to the teacher. The teacher may view or print the contents of the "Special Interests" file at a later time. The tutorials cover what alcohol is, the physical effects of alcohol, and the psychological effects of alcohol. Each tutorial is a mixture of text and graphic screens and multiple-choice questions. An explanation is given for every response to a question. In the IBM version the student has the option of reading an explanation to the other responses or proceeding with the tutorial.

**Possible Uses:** This package is useful with highly motivated students, one student or a small group of students at a time.

**Strengths:** In the IBM version the students may move forward or backward in the sequence of lessons. The "Special Interests" file is a good idea, however it is poorly implemented. The glossary is a helpful feature.

**Weaknesses:** The lessons are a linear sequence with no branching or randomization of questions. Reading level seem higher at some places in the lessons and low at others. Information provided about alcohol and body weight, and the dose-effect of mixing alcohol and drugs is misleading. At the end of the lesson several screens of important information are given without any follow-up questions.

User interface on the IBM version is clumsy and variable. For example, to proceed to the next screen the program inconsistently uses the "P," "+," or "Enter" keys. Other times menus work with a single key response or they require pressing "Enter" after making a selection.

Entering comments in the "Special Interest" file is very awkward. There is no word wrap nor is there any way to edit your statement without completely re-entering or erasing from the end.

The program does not stress the illegality of teen drinking and implies there is a personal decision.

**Comments:** The package employs only a cognitive approach to learning.

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**Drug Abuse**
**Queue**
**Hardware: 48K Apple II family, 64K IBM PC, 128K Macintosh, 32K TRS-80** **$39.95, 49.49 with management system (Apple)**
**Audience: 7th grade reading level or above** **Copyright: 1986**

**Description:** The package consists of one disk and a 12-page user's manual. The software covers the same materials and is very similar to another product from the same producer entitled "The Dangers of Drugs," the major difference being the more advanced reading level. The disk provides 10 tutorials, each of which is a series of text passages followed by one or more related multiple-choice, true/false, fill-in-the-blank questions. The lessons are titled "Introduction," "Opiates," "Marijuana," "LSD and PCP," "Amphetamines," "Alcohol," "Sedatives," "Stimulants and Vapors," "Antihistamines and Tobacco," and "Review." The number correct and incorrect and the percentage correct is given upon completion of each exercise. A management system is available for the Apple version.

**Possible Uses:** This package is written at about the seventh grade reading level and is most appropriate for use with individual students.

**Strengths:** Covers a wide variety of drugs except crack and focuses on harmful effects. Students are given correct responses and an explanation each time he/she gives an incorrect answer. The package is easy for both the student and teacher to use and fits nicely into the seventh grade curriculum.

**Weaknesses:** The lessons are a linear sequence with no branching or randomization of questions. The instruction format of text followed by questions without any variation or graphics is very monotonous. Both the alcohol and tobacco section should be covered in greater detail. The fill-in-the-blank questions do not account for alternate correct responses. The sound cannot be turned off.

**Comments:** The package does not address refusal skills at all.

**Drug Alert!**
**Mindscape**
**Hardware: 48K Apple II + e c GS** **$39.95, lab packs $79.90**
**Audience: Grades 5-8** **Copyright: 1986**

**Description:** The package contains one disk, a back-up and a 59-page user's manual containing program operating instructions, lesson plans, and reproducible student worksheets. Drug Alert! is an adventure game in which students are challenged to help a friend who is hooked on drugs get out of a hotel frequented by drug dealers and users. Students begin in the basement and must go up four floors to exit. Each floor has two stashes of drugs which the students must find and incinerate before they may go up the elevator to the next floor. Initially, the students find the "Drug Alert! Handbook," a drug information database, which serves as a valuable resource during the adventure. Many pages are missing, however, and as they move from room to room they find and pick up the various crumpled missing pages. Occasionally they encounter other people who will not let them pass until they answer a question about drugs. Students may browse or search the handbook to find the answer or try to find an alternate route. Before the students may leave the hotel they must identify the drug the friend has taken. Each floor contains clues which assist in the identification of the unknown drug. A drug identification worksheet is available for recording and organizing the clues. A management system maintains the progress and prints reports for up to 40 students.

**Possible Uses:** The database activities could be used with high school students. The games aspect may be useful as a review.

**Strengths:** The manual provides a sequence of eight lesson plans about the effects of licit and illicit drugs. The activities make use of the limited database (Drug Alert! Handbook) of information about various drugs.

**Weaknesses:** The games takes place in a sub-basement of a run-down hotel full of seedy people. Such a scenario is not an accurate picture of how drugs are used by today's youth.

Since searching the database requires browsing various lists, searching the database is laborious and the information provided is very brief.

**Comments:** Playing a game to completion is likely to take longer than a normal class period, however, the program provides a "Bookmark" which saves the students progress to disk. Students lean about the various drugs incidentally as they play the game making it difficult to know exactly what the students have learned as a result. Consequently, the activities outlined in the manual may be more valuable to classroom teachers. The games makes a better review than a stand-alone package.

**Drug Pursuit I & II**
**CompTech Systems Design**
**Hardware: Apple II + e c GS .management systems** **$39.95 each, $59.95 with**
**Audience: Level I - Grades 6-8, Level II - Grades 9-Adult** **Copyright: 1986**

**Description:** Each package contains a program disk with the student program on one side and the teacher utility programs on the other, a question disk, and a seven-page user manual. The program provides an education game which is a variation of the board game "Trivial Pursuit." One to four students compete in a bicycle race by correctly answering fill-in-the-blank trivia questions about drugs. To win, students must be the first to correctly answer at least one question from each of five categories. A colorful map and several scenes help the student track his/her progress along the race course. The categories initially provided are uppers, downers, inside/out, tobacco/pot, and potpourri. The categories are the same on both level I and II but level I is appropriate for grades 6-8 while level II is appropriate for grades nine and above. The teacher utility program enables teachers to create, edit, and print question sets; defines races; generate reports; and create "Race Information Disks" for storing student and race information. A save race feature enables students to complete an unfinished race at another time.

**Possible Uses:** The program could be used as a review at the end of a drug education unit.

**Strengths:** The teacher can enter up to three alternate correct answers for each question. The fill-in-the-blank format requires proper spelling. The ability to add and modify the question makes the program applicable to many different topics.

**Weaknesses:** There is no way to exit the functions of the teacher utility program once you have begun. Numerous disk accesses make the program run very slowly.

The materials provided use a lot of slang terms which carry positive connotations about drugs. Success with the program indicates a good knowledge of a lot of street slang about drugs.

**Comments:** Disk swapping is required even with two disks. With one disk drive, disks must be exchanged with each question.

### Drugs & Heartbeat: Experiments with a Daphnia

**Cross Education Software**
**Hardware: 48K Apple II + e c GS**
**Audience: Grades 7-12**
**$29.95**
**Copyright: 1987**

**Description:** The package includes a program disk, a back-up disk, an 11-page teacher's guide, and a student heartbeat record sheet. The program begins with a brief tutorial which explains stimulants and depressants, background and anatomy of the Daphnia, and how to perform the experiment. In the experiment students apply various drugs to a Daphnia specimen in the simulated lab. For each application of a drug the student must observe the Daphnia and calculate the heart rate by counting the number of heartbeats for a timed interval. Heart rates are recorded for the Daphnia's normal rate and then under the influence of alcohol, caffeine, nicotine, Valium, cocaine, and codeine. The resulting data may be graphed using the provided graph sheet or using a graphing function included with the program. The support materials provide a quiz and bibliography along with the program operating instructions.

**Possible Uses:** This package is most appropriate for use in a secondary science class with small groups of two or three students.

**Strengths:** Students can clearly see the effects of the various drugs on the Daphnia. The graphing capability is a good use of the computer.

**Weaknesses:** The manual reviews the content but does not give clear program operating instructions. If an error is made during graphing the student must start over. The graphing should be scaled better to allow comparisons of more results.

**Comments:** The program would be appropriate for infusing drug education into a science class. One can clearly see how drugs affect the Daphnia but the manual states that response to the various drugs differ from that of humans. It is questionable whether the student would get a no-use message from the use of the disk. The heart rate of the Daphnia under the influence of cocaine is too fast to accurately count.

### Drugs: Their Effect On You

**Marshware**
**Hardware: 48K Apple II + e c GS**
**Audience: Grades 6-8**
**$52.45**
**Copyright: 1985**

**Description:** This package contains one disk and an 11-page user's manual. The disk contains a series of eight tutorials, a 25-question quiz, and a dictionary of 14 terms and definitions. The student may choose to do any of the tutorials individually or to do all of the tutorials in order. The tutorials include what a drug is, stimulants, depressants, hallucinogens, narcotics, coping with peer pressure, taking risks, and saying no. Each tutorial is a series of text and graphic presentations reinforced with true/false questions. If the student answers a question incorrectly the program loops him/her back to the tutorial screen containing the answer. Two of the tutorials relate statistical data to the student's personal experience. For example, at one point the student is asked to enter his/her weight or the weight of someone he/she knows. The computer then calculates the number of drinks that would make that person legally drunk. Another time, the students enter the number of packs of cigarettes per day someone smokes and how long that person has been smoking. The computer calculates how many cigarettes that person has smoked and gives the resulting decrease in his/her life expectancy.

**Possible Uses:** The package is most appropriate for use with individual students. Small groups of two or three students would also benefit. Students would need to be highly motivated.

**Strengths:** The portions of the program which relate student-entered data to known outcomes is a helpful feature.

**Weaknesses:** The lessons are strictly linear with no randomization or branching. Incorrect responses loop back to an earlier portion of the sequence. This format is not particularly interesting and does not engage the student. The reading level seems to be too high in some parts of the program and too low in others. The quiz gives exactly the same questions presented in the lessons.

**Drugs: Who's In Control**
**Marshware**
**Hardware: 48K Apple II + I.C. GS, printer recommended** **$52.45**
**Audience: Grades 6-8** **Copyright: 1987**

**Description:** This package contains one disk, a nine-page user manual, and two reproducible student record sheets. The software is designed to manage as many as nine small groups of two to six students each. Half of the students in each group assume the role of the follower, a person who is easily persuaded to go along with the crowd, and the other half of the students assume the role of the friend whose role it is to keep the follower out of trouble. The follower may be either male or female. Each group in turn is presented with a series of four scenarios involving drug or alcohol use. For each scenario, the groups must discuss the situation per his/her assigned point of view, evaluate the choices, weigh the risks, make a decision, and evaluate the results as given by the computer. If a group yields to peer pressure and makes a dangerous choice, that group is likely to encounter high risk scenarios in subsequent rounds. Groups which make safe choices are likely to encounter lower-risk scenarios. This package is designed to be used after all of the students have used the first package in the series entitle "Drugs: Their Effects on You."

**Possible Uses:** This program provides a good activity for teaching peer resistance, refusal, decision-making, and critical thinking skills at the middle or junior high level.

**Strengths:** The computer generates good, realistic scenarios which stimulate group discussion.

**Weaknesses:** It would be helpful if the user manual included a list of possible scenarios, choices, and results. Without the printer, there is no way to go back and review the choices after receiving the results.

**Comments:** The value of this program stems from the interaction which occurs within each of the small groups. The quality of this interaction is more a function of the supervising teacher than of the software.

**Great Knowledge Race, The: Substance Abuse**
**Focus Media**
**Hardware: 48K Apple II family** **$45.00**
**Audience: Grades 4-8** **Copyright: 1987**

**Description:** This package contains a master game disk, a double-sided data disk, and a 10-page manual. "The Great Knowledge Race" is a Trivial Pursuit-like board game for up to four players or teams of players. Players are presented with a game board of colored square symbols in which each symbol represents one of four categories of questions plus a "potluck" category which includes questions from all of the categories. Each player (or team) in turn rolls the die (simulated on the computer, of course), moves around the game board in a path that will place him/her on a desired category, and then answer a multiple-choice question form that category. If he/she answers correctly, he/she wins that category and a chance to roll again. If he/she misses the question the turn goes to the next player. To win the game, a player must be the first to correctly answer at least one question in each of the five categories. The categories available include alcohol, drugs, smoking, and dangers in foods and food additives. Game options available which may be turned on or off are sound, question, timer, and a cross on the dice which indicates loss of turn.

**Possible Uses:** Would best be used as a review game at the end of a unit which covers the materials used.

**Strengths:** The game flows well and could make a suitable review.

**Weaknesses:** The package focuses on facts and trivia and does not stress the illegality of drug use. Answers are either right or wrong and no feedback on why is given. The list of questions used is not covered in the manual, making it difficult for a teacher to know how it fits into his/her curriculum.

**Comments:** The package employs only a cognitive approach to learning.

## Introduction to Psychoactive Drugs (SAE-3)

**SAE Software**

**Hardware:** 64K Apple II family, IBM PC

**Audience:** Grades 9-college

$39.95

**Copyright: 1987**

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| **Description:** | The package contains one disk and a booklet of start-up instructions. The program provides a brief introduction, tutorial lessons, a glossary of terms, and a 15-page question, true/false self-test. The tutorial title "Drugs, Circulation and the Nervous System" discusses why some drugs act faster then others, the varying effects of different drugs, why effects differ from person to person, and why some effects last longer than others. The tutorial titled "Drugs, Tolerance, and Dependence" covers tolerance, reverse tolerance, physical and psychological dependency, and addiction. The tutorial titled "Drugs and the Law" covers the motives behind drug laws, and the major federal drug laws. Each tutorial is a mixture of text and graphic screens and multiple-choice questions. An explanation is given after every response to a question. In the IBM version the student has the option of reading the explanation to the other responses or proceeding with the tutorial. |
| **Possible Uses:** | This package is useful with highly motivated students, one student or a small group of students at a time. The presentations tend to be very technical and would be more appropriate for high school or college students. |
| **Strengths:** | In the IBM version the students may move forward or backward in the sequence of lessons. |
| **Weaknesses:** | User interface on the IBM version is clumsy and inconsistent. For example, to proceed to the next screen the program inconsistently uses the "P,", "+,", or "Enter" keys. Other times menus work with a single key response or they require pressing "Enter" after making a selection.<br>The lessons are a linear sequence with no branching or randomization of questions. The lesson format is very uninteresting and does not hold the students interest. |

## Keep Off The Grass - Marijuana (SAE-2)

**SAE Software**

**Hardware:** 64K Apple II family, IBM PC

**Audience:** Grades 7-12

$39.95

**Copyright: 1988**

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| **Description:** | The package contains one disk and a booklet of start-up instructions. The program provides a list of objectives, tutorial lessons, a glossary of terms, a 25-question, multiple-choice self-test, a game, and a "Special Interests" file into which students enter confidential messages, concerns, or questions to the teacher. The teacher may view or print contents of the "Special Interests" file at a later time. The tutorials cover what marijuana is, and the psychological effects of marijuana. Each tutorial is a mixture of text and graphic screens and multiple-choice questions. An explanation is given after every response to a question. In the IBM version the student has the option of reading an explanation to the other responses or proceeding with the tutorial. In the game "Fact or Fiction," one student against the computer or students against each other compete to determine whether given questions are fact or fiction. Three levels of difficulty are available. |
| **Possible Uses:** | This package is useful with highly motivated students, one student or a small group od students at a time. |
| **Strengths:** | In the IBM version the students may move forward or backward in the sequence of lessons. The ""Special Interests" file is a good idea, however it is poorly implemented. The glossary is a helpful feature. |
| **Weaknesses:** | The lessons are linear in sequence with no branching or randomization of questions.<br>User interface on the IBM version is clumsy and inconsistent. For example, to proceed to the next screen the program inconsistently uses the "P,", "+,", or "Enter" keys. Other times menus work with a single key response or they require pressing "Enter" after making a selection.<br>Entering comments in the "Special Interests" file is very awkward. There is no word wrap nor is there any way to edit your statement without completely re-entering or erasing from the end. |
| **Comments:** | The program stresses the harmfulness while promoting responsible decision making and does not stress the illegality of the use of marijuana. |

## PRODUCT DESCRIPTIONS

**Six Classes of Psychoactive Drugs (SAE-4)**
**SAE Software**
**Hardware: 64K Apple II family, IBM PC** **$39.95**
**Audience: Grades 9-college** **Copyright: 1987**

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| **Description:** | The package contains one disk and a booklet of start-up instructions. The program provides a list of objectives, tutorial lessons, a glossary of terms, a 15-question, multiple-choice self-test, and a game. The tutorials cover methamphetamines, barbiturates, cocaine and coca, hallucinogens, opiates, and volatile inhalants. Each tutorial begins by presenting a list of the glossary terms relating to the selected topic followed by a tutorial which is primarily a linear sequence of mixture of text and graphic screens and multiple-choice questions. An explanation is given after every response to a question. The glossary terms may be reviewed at any time during the tutorial. In the IBM version the student has the option of reading the explanation to the other responses or proceeding with the tutorial. In the game "Lights Out," one student against the computer or two students against each other compete to be the first to correctly answer true/false questions. Each player chooses from which of the six categories the questions will be drawn. No more than three questions from any one category is allowed. During the game, the students take turns answering the questions from the categories they choose until one, the winner, has correctly answered ten questions. |
| **Possible Uses:** | The package is useful with highly motivated students, one student or a small group of students at a time. The presentation tend to be very technical and would be more appropriate for high school or college students. |
| **Strengths:** | In the IBM version the students may move forward or backward in the sequence of lessons. The glossary is a helpful feature.<br>User interface on the IBM version is clumsy and inconsistent. For example, to proceed to the next screen the program inconsistently uses the "P,", "+,", or "Enter" keys. Other times menus work with a single key response or they require pressing "Enter" after making a selection. |
| **Weaknesses:** | The lessons are a linear sequence with no branching or randomization of questions. |
| **Comments:** | The program stresses the harmful effects and does not stress the illegality of the use of many of the drugs discussed. |

**Substance Abuse Support Group Data Base (SAE-5)**
**SAE Software**
**Hardware: 64K Apple II family, IBM PC** **$39.95**
**Audience: Grades 7-12** **Copyright: 1987**

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|---|---|
| **Description:** | This package contains one disk and a three-page instruction sheet. The program is a database management program and a database of information about over 30 substance abuse support groups. Records are retrieved by first choosing to search the database on the categories of alcohol, marijuana, psychoactive drugs, tobacco, and others and then selecting the organization from the list of those found. The information provided includes the organization name, address, phone number, and a brief description. A teacher utility option allows records to be added, edited, deleted, or printed. Program operating instructions are from the main menu. |
| **Possible Uses:** | Could be used as a reference tool for students or by professional drug prevention specialists. |
| **Strengths:** | The program is very easy to use but very limited in scope. |
| **Weaknesses:** | The file contains professional organization in the substance abuse field and does not deal with support groups from a student's point of view. Searching the database is limited to the categories provided and no sorting is possible. |
| **Comments:** | The initial database provided is not comprehensive by any means. Most professionals would already be aware of these organization and would need to add many others. |

**TUTORSYSTEMS: Alcohol & Health Program**
**BLS**
**Hardware:** **48K Apple II + e c GS**
**Audience:** **Students with 6th grade reading level or above**

**$120.00**
**Copyright: 1984**

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| **Description:** | This package contains two disks and a 10-page user's manual. Each disk contains a series of tutorials, a mastery test, and a "student monitor" or management system which records and reports the results of the mastery tests. Each lesson is a series of text passages followed by either multiple-choice or true/false questions. The lessons on disk 1 are titled Introduction, Ethyl Alcohol, Brief History, Patterns of Drinking in the United States, Reasons for Drinking Alcohol, Reasons for Not Drinking Alcohol, How Alcohol Affects the Body, Behavior as Affected by Group Drinking, Concentrations of Alcohol in the Bloodstream, Effects of Alcohol on Brain Cells, and Reasons for Drinking to Intoxication. The lessons on disk 2 are titled Introduction, Alcoholic Beverages and Automobile Accidents, Alcoholism, Alcohol and the Law, and Views and Practices Concerning Alcoholic Beverages in the U.S.A. |
| **Possible Uses:** | Is appropriate for use with individual students. |
| **Strengths:** | The management system is helpful for maintaining the scores on the mastery tests but does little to keep track of where each student is in the sequence of lessons. |
| **Weaknesses:** | The instructional format of text followed by questions without any variation or graphics is very uninteresting. No branching is provided and there is no way to go back or to escape from a lesson. |
| **Comments:** | The program presents facts about alcohol and its use and lets the student decide whether or not to use alcohol. The no-use message is not clearly presented. Students are only given the option of doing all the lessons in order or taking the mastery test, individual lessons are only available from a teacher menu. |

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# PERCEIVED STRENGTHS OF DRUG EDUCATION INFUSION STRATEGIES AND SUPPORT FROM FUNDING SOURCES AND SCHOOL DISTRICTS

*(ED309350)*

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Funk and Wagnalls

in-fuse (in.fyooz') v.t. 1. To instill or inculcate, as principles. 2. To inspire, imbue. 3. To pour in.

Drug Education Infusion Project Proposal

In terms of curriculum impact to be gained from the project, and in light of the foregoing issues (bulging curriculum), project staff will pursue...efforts with school districts designed to infuse drug education into ongoing subjects at all grade levels. The infusion strategy promotes thinking of drug eduction as being done "at the same time" rather than "in addition to" ongoing subjects.

The proposal which resulted in the two year Drug Education Infusion Project was prepared in response to an RFP authorized through the Discretionary Fund of the Secretary of Education. Many of the specific articles and provisions which appeared in that RFP are included in the Drug Free Schools and Communities Program regulations for the current fiscal year. The background source for the RFP and for many of the provisions of the current Program was the Department of Education monograph, Schools Without Drugs, which was published under the leadership and auspice of the (then) Secretary of Education, William Bennett.

While Schools Without Drugs did not advocate "infusion" strategies as such, it did convey several themes and assumptions about drug education which were emphasized in our proposal and project. These themes held considerably greater curricular, operational and policy relevance, to the Department than was recognized by readers, and were often overlooked by reviewers who focused upon the "dark side of The Force" tone frequently ascribed to the publication. Examples of these themes follow.

First, the increasingly "clear and present danger" nature of society's drug problem was deemed to demand constructive attention and effort from every sector of society if its progress was to be slowed and reduced in scope and effect. Second, the dire negative consequences visited upon the educational process in communities with serious drug problems demanded that drug education permeate every aspect of school operation as a "first line of defense measure," along with increased familial and community support for drug free schools.

Third, while drug abuse was clearly conveyed as a total societal problem, the relatively "closed" environment of the schooling process was deemed the best option for ensuring that children and youth were repeatedly exposed to the knowledge, skills, values, attitudes and community networks they needed to deal effectively with the complex manifestations of "the drug problem." Finally, the monograph clearly identified the need to significantly expand the expertise available to school personnel to deal with the complexities of civil, criminal, constitutional and policy issues, as well as curricular instructional, and co-curricular matters. Expectations that they are to effectively function as one of the first lines of defense, in the best interests of the society as a whole, requires that such expertise be provided to them.

This brief background and context is provided as a backdrop for understanding why we found the funding source to be attracted to, and supportive of, our proposed infusion strategy when we were involved in negotiating (lowering, of course) the project budget. Department of Education staff and review panels judged the infusion strategy to have strength, first, because it made plausible the idea of K-12 permeation of curriculum and instruction with drug education objectives rather than focusing its impact upon dispersed units across selected subject areas and/or specialized courses at a few grade levels. Second, the infusion strategy and individual district approach embraced the revered concept of local control, avoided the politically negatively-fraught notion of "...another Federally mandated program" and yet, represented the possibility that a district could exert the effort required to put a relatively comprehensive drug education program in place.

Third, those involved in evaluating the proposal clearly conveyed their belief that decisions children and youth make regarding drug use aren't essentially different in content, process and (although the decision could be much more deadly and debilitating) variables in the decision field, from other decisions that they make (e.g. shoplifting, use of violence, gang participation, extracurricular school involvement). For that reason, the personal decision-making, valuing, and behavioral selection dimensions included in the proposed infusion strategy were seen as strengths by the funding source.

Fourth, the infusion strategy did not target specific subject areas, grades, or teachers as being "responsible" for drug education. Some schools or areas which were experiencing much more evident and visible drug problems with their students, submitted proposals where instructional strategies were highly focused on specific courses, units, and grade levels (and thereby teachers). DOE staff reportedly asked those schools to broaden the scope of their proposed projects and resubmit under the Drug Free Schools and Community Program. Some proposers had difficulty understanding that while staff were certainly interested in promoting the "permeation of school operations" theme, they were equally interested in avoiding an identifiable set of teachers being "assigned" responsibility for drug education or, concomitantly, being "blamed" for drug problems in schools and/or society.

The fifth and final strength of the infusion strategy identified by the funding source was related to the need to promote program ownership at the local level. DOE staff were extremely aware of the irregular record associated with schools adopting packaged curricula, specialized programs, "model" drug education approaches, etc. The lack of identification with, training in, or a combination of both, drug education programs adopted from external sources all too frequently leads to "fifth wheel" status for the program and no feeling of ownership, identification, or responsibility for its full implementation, maintenance and renewal at the school and classroom levels. The infusion strategy attends to the ownership factor in its development process and does not displace the ongoing curriculum nor require external expertise to any greater extent, for its maintenance and renewal, than does any other portion of the "locally owned and operated" curriculum.

While the time available for developing the funding proposal was extremely short, the time required to recognize the high level of felt need for drug education and the efficacy of the infusion strategy among school districts comprised one phone call. The first district we approached to solicit support for the proposal was extremely clear on two points; teachers, administrators and Board members wanted an active, effective drug education program in the worst way, and there was simply no room in the curriculum to "add it on" as a stand alone entity.

Idaho and Washington districts, with whom we work closely on a continuing basis, had recently experienced the first effects of State Commissions on Excellence which had increased the requirements for graduation by 20-25% (in terms of credits), imposed maximum days absent rules for awarding credits, and mandated subject specific grade requirements. The respective Legislatures had endorsed reports of the Commissions, of course, and appropriated between 12-35% of the resources districts had identified as being required to implement the new programs, standards and rules.

While pressure from this source was perceived to be particularly intense for grades 9-12, other "add-on" requirements (sex education, pre-school handicapped education, AIDS education, developmental reading, etc.) were deemed by administrators and teachers alike to challenge a curriculum which, in their reality, was bulging at the seams. Perhaps the most telling remark here was received from a principal (also a strong advocate for drug education) who stated, "We have a _____ (fill it in) education curriculum; every identified social problem, national and state priority wants exclusive access to some fixed part of the 12,960 hours of every child's planned K-12 school attendance. I just can't see how we can stretch it anymore."

Following an explanation of our planned infusion strategy and one seemingly inevitable question or comment ("How can you do that in math?"), every district we contacted agreed to support the proposal. Further, almost all of them perceived the infusion strategy to represent a plausible approach to attain a drug education program which each of them wanted and felt certain was needed. More than a few overtly expressed excitement at the prospect of extensive involvement with the project.

A third reason surfaced to explain school personnel support of and identification with the infusion concept of drug education; it did not negate any curriculum development, in service education or instructional changes the respective districts had begun on their own initiative in order to pursue their felt needs for drug education. Most districts which had begun something, in fact, judged the infusion strategy to be supportive and expansive of their own efforts.

In our early contacts with teachers, the use of the infusion strategy helped to allay some of their sincerely felt shortcomings and to promote their feeling able to perform against a real felt need. Almost without exception, teachers we contacted wanted to do something directly about "the drug problem" and held rather realistic perceptions about how damaging, potentially dangerous and destructive the effects of the problem had and could yet become. At the same time, most felt that they did not have, and probably could not acquire, sufficient drug, or drug problem, specific knowledge to do a credible professional job of instruction for their students. Presentation of the infusion strategy and teachers' early experiences in working with it, exerted extremely positive effects in these areas.

Teachers' feelings of insecurity regarding drug-specific knowledge was balanced by the idea that it would be an integral part of their disciplines or curricula. The infusion strategy supported them in the comfort zones of their ongoing felt responsibilities for teaching children. This perceived security was further promoted as they discovered how "little" (although they usually learned a lot) drug specific content they needed to master in order to produce exciting, effective lessons in various subject areas. In our intensive workshops, in fact, teachers felt certain that the infused drug education content would promote better attending behavior by their students than had previously used content. (The final tally on that score isn't available as yet.)

As these feelings of security emerged, teachers reported that they were able to act productively and personally to "do something about" a very real felt need. While the concept of an infusion strategy had not convinced them that this was the case, the experience of working with it had done so. Without specifically identifying it as such, the drug eduction infusion strategy was judged not to have threatened teacher comfort zones (a frequent death knell for innovation), but, in practice, had expanded them.

Teachers and principals (especially those in elementary schools) who attended infusion strategy workshops almost immediately identified the relevance of the approach for the various positive action, personal development and decision-making, citizenship education, etc. (there are many catch words) programs they were currently operating. The concepts of personal responsibility, concern for others, some notion of "common good," consequences of decisions and choices, social responsibility, etc. are apparently much more vivid, fruitful and relevant when elementary students apply them in drug education than when they are applied to self management difficulties occurring in classroom, lunchroom, and playground environments. While teachers report a need to protect against intrusion of fictionalized, sensationalized, and occasionally glamorized treatment of drug problems in the popular media, into children's perceptions of drug education, they also report sincere concern with and willingness to address drug related issues, at a personal level, even among second and third graders.

Finally, the infusion strategy does promote program ownership by the classroom teacher. Even those teachers who reported expecting the intensive workshops to be filled with titillating but horror and tragedy-filled content related to the folly of drug use, and thereby arrived in a hesitant and somewhat standoffish mood, could hardly wait to share their infusion-based lessons with colleagues by the end of the experience. In the culminating workshop activities where role playing and demonstration lessons were the orders of the day, it was difficult to determine whether teachers were more happily anxious to share their "creations" with others or to get to role play a drug dealer, law and order zealot, religious fanatic, defenseless child, undercover agent, school principal, unbelieving parent, or other character that is so different from the forever responsible and reasonable classroom teacher.

In summary, the Drug Education Infusion project approach was well-received by and promoted collaboration from the funding source and school personnel alike. It matched design requirements that the funding source had postulated for an effective, comprehensive, drug education approach and avoided detracting political and potentially negative accountability and targeting difficulties associated with other approaches. For school personnel, it promoted local ownership of curriculum, avoided the labelling of drug education as an "add-on," and enabled them to directly address a high priority societal issue in a professional way that did not displace them from their perceived-as-appropriate instructional realms, nor the comfort zones of their accustomed performance in that realm.

# CRITERIA FOR THE SELECTION OF DRUG ABUSE PREVENTION CURRICULA: A WORKBOOK

*(ED363835)*

Jill English and Anthony Sancho
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## INTRODUCTION

The number of drug abuse prevention curricula available is overwhelming. One can become so inundated with these classroom instructional materials that a well-reasoned selection process never occurs. Then, when the deadline is near, the curriculum that gets selected may be one from the company with the best marketing strategies or the one that is best-packaged, rather than the one based on sound prevention education strategies.

The purpose of this workbook is to enable a district or school to select a drug abuse prevention curriculum that is educationally sound and effective. It was produced to assist in the selection of pre-developed curricula. However, the criteria may be easily adapted for use in developing curricula.

## HOW TO USE THE WORKBOOK

### *Criteria Organization*

The following criteria for selecting a drug abuse prevention curriculum are based on educational theory, research of effective drug prevention programs, and the practical application of those programs. The criteria are expressed in terms of the optimum and are organized into the following categories:

A. Goals and Objectives
B. Content
C. Instructional Methodologies
D. Learning Opportunities
E. Materials
F. Time
G. Evaluation
H. Cultural Equity
I. Sex Equity
J. District-specific Criteria

### *Preparation for Curriculum Selection*

The first step in selecting a drug abuse prevention curriculum is to form a district selection team. Suggested members for this team include:

- district prevention specialist
- curriculum specialist
- teacher
- principal
- parent
- community drug abuse prevention professional
- student

The selection team needs to accomplish the following tasks:

1. *Develop a realistic, attainable goal for the curriculum.* One of the main reasons past prevention efforts have failed is because goals were so ambitious that they were virtually impossible to achieve. If the goal of a curriculum is meant to imply eradication, then it is unrealistic. The prevention of all drug abuse could be accomplished only through the elimination of drugs from society. In addition, it is unrealistic to expect that a school-based curriculum would have that degree of impact alone, without the support of other school and community programs. The goals that the curriculum itself may attain must be within reason, given the school's resources and level of commitment, for it to be successful.

2. *Agree on the definition of a drug.* Not everyone agrees on what a drug is and what it isn't. These varying definitions make it difficult to select curricula. The drug on which the curriculum will focus and the definition of that drug must be done prior to the selection of any curriculum.

3. *Come to a consensus on what drug abuse is, especially as it relates to alcohol.* The definition of drug abuse is even more varied than that of a drug. Some people feel "responsible" drinking is acceptable. Others believe any drug use is abuse. These

issues need to be discussed in length so that the messages delivered throughout the curriculum are consistently ones of "no use."

3. *Decide on additional criteria the team thinks are important.* There may be criteria other than those given in this workbook that the team may want to consider. These criteria will be specific to the district or school.
4. *Determine budget constraints.* The prices of existing curricula vary. To expedite and simplify the selection process, districts need to determine how much money may realistically be spent on curricula. Many curricula may be eliminated quite easily, regardless of their quality, because of budget constraints.

Once these tasks are completed, the team is ready to begin the selection process.

### *Using the Selection Criteria*

The criteria that follow are meant to be used as a guide to systematically simplify the selection process, while making it more educationally sound. The guide has not, however, been scientifically tested with all available curricula.

Because most available curricula do not cover all K-12 grades, it is suggested the criteria be used to evaluate one curriculum at each grade level rather than using one form to evaluate all the grades within a curriculum.

Initially, each team member should rate each curriculum independently. The curriculum is to be analyzed according to the degree that it meets the criterion: completely, to some degree, not at all. In addition, if the curriculum meets the criterion to some degree, the percentage to which it is met is noted: 75%, 50%, 25%. The score for each criterion should be circled, based on the analysis. There is space next to the rating of each criterion for comments and to note specifically what is lacking or is exceptionally good. Finally, the total score for each category is tallied and transferred to page 15 for easier analysis of all curricula.

After that task has been completed, the committee may discuss any large discrepancies, coming to a consensus about the best curriculum for the district. Curriculum may be selected using one of the following processes:

1. Select one curriculum from an array of products.
2. Select one curriculum based on its own merits, without comparing it to others.
3. Develop a list of acceptable curricula from which policymakers may select.

## GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

Goals are the long-range results toward which the curriculum is directed. Objectives are a listing of what the students will be able to do at the conclusion of the curricular program.

| Criteria | Degree criterion is met | | | | | Needs/Comments |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Completely | To some degree | | | Not at all | |
| | | 75% | 50% | 25% | | |
| 1. Goals and objectives are *realistically* attainable. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 2. Goals and objectives are related to the district's identified needs. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 3. Objectives are well-defined, behavioral, and measurable. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 4. Objectives describe both long-term and short-term outcomes. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 5. Objectives include a strong focus on prevention. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 6. Program includes both cognitive and affective objectives. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 7. Goals and objectives promote a clear and consistent no-use message. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 8. Objectives reflect an appropriate and comprehensive scope and sequence for the grade level. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |

**TOTAL SCORE: _____ of 32**

## CONTENT

Content refers to the subject matter included in the curriculum.

| | Degree criterion is met | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Criteria | Completely | To some degree | | | Not at all | Needs/Comments |
| | | 75% | 50% | 25% | | |
| 1. Curriculum contains appropriate continuity, scope, and sequence for the grade level. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 2. Content is comprehensive in nature. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 3. Content may be integrated into a variety of other subject matter. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 4. Content is part of a comprehensive health promotion curriculum. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 5. Content is accurate, valid, and current. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 6. Content promotes a clear "no-use" message. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 7. Content is based on the needs and interests of all students. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 8. Content addresses the perspectives of various ethnic and cultural groups. | | | | | | |
| 9. Curriculum contains content of effective drug prevention programs, such as short-term, social consequences of use; clarification of normative beliefs; stress reduction; communication skills; decision-making process influences to use drugs; and friendship development. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |

**TOTAL SCORE:** _____ **of 36**

## INSTRUCTIONAL METHODOLOGIES

Instructional methodologies are the activities or strategies used *by the teacher* to facilitate student learning.

| Criteria | Degree criterion is met | | | | | Needs/Comments |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Completely | To some degree | | | Not at all | |
| | | 75% | 50% | 25% | | |
| 1. Curriculum uses a variety of instructional methodologies. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 2. Curriculum uses methodologies of effective drug abuse prevention programs:<br>• role playing<br>• socratic instruction (questioning)<br>• small group discussions<br>• little didacticism (preaching, moralizing) | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 3. Instructional methodologies take into account the cultural and ethnic values, customs, and practices of the community. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 4. Instructional methods are appropriate for the grade level. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |

**TOTAL SCORE: _____ of 16**

## LEARNING OPPORTUNITIES

Learning opportunities are the activities engaged in *by the students* to help them achieve the curricular objectives.

| Criteria | Degree criterion is met | | | | | Needs/Comments |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Completely | To some degree | | | Not at all | |
| | | 75% | 50% | 25% | | |
| 1. Curricula provides students with a variety of opportunities to learn knowledge and practice skills related to the program objectives. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 2. Curriculum uses learning opportunities of effective drug prevention programs such as decision-making, skill rehearsal, critical analysis, values identification, and goal setting. | | | | | | |
| 3. Curriculum provides meaningful homework activities that include opportunities for parent involvement. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 4. Activities foster higher-order thinking among students. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |

**TOTAL SCORE:** _____ of 16

## MATERIALS

The materials are items that are a part of the curricular package used by teachers or students.

| Criteria | Degree criterion is met | | | | | Needs/Comments |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Completely | To some degree | | | Not at all | |
| | | 75% | 50% | 25% | | |
| 1. Materials are current and valid. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 2. Materials are appropriate for the target population. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 3. Materials are relevant to the program objectives. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 4. Materials are easily accessible. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 5. Materials. which contain clear format and direction. may easily be used by teachers. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 6. Materials are aesthetically pleasing and of high quality. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 7. Materials are durable and safe. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 8. Materials are within the budget constraints of the program. | | | | | | |
| 9. The structure of the curriculum allows it to be easily updated. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 10. References are provided for teachers. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |

**TOTAL SCORE: _____ of 40**

## TIME

Time refers to the time spent implementing the curriculum.

| Criteria | Degree criterion is met | | | | | Needs/Comments |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Completely | To some degree | | | Not at all | |
| | | 75% | 50% | 25% | | |
| 1. Program is of adequate time and intensity to meet all objectives. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 2. Amount of time allotted for each lesson fits the scheduling needs of the instructor. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |

**TOTAL SCORE: _____ of 8**

## EVALUATION

The evaluation includes assessments done during the curriculum's development and implementation.

| Criteria | Degree criterion is met | | | | | Needs/Comments |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Completely | To some degree | | | Not at all | |
| | | 75% | 50% | 25% | | |
| 1. Program was thoroughly evaluated prior to dissemination. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 2. Evaluation was clearly linked to all program objectives. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 3. Evaluation shows evidence of changes in attitude. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 4. Program provides for ongoing evaluation by the teacher. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |

**TOTAL SCORE: _____ of 16**

## CULTURAL EQUITY

Materials reflect cultural equity when there is a balance in the positive representation of diverse populations.

| Criteria | Degree criterion is met | | | | | Needs/Comments |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Completely | To some degree | | | Not at all | |
| | | 75% | 50% | 25% | | |
| 1. Materials contain no demeaning labels or stereotypes of minorities. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 2. Materials display a variety of diverse ethnic groups. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 3. Materials display minorities in a variety of professions. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 4. Materials present minority contributions and achievements. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 5. Materials depict differences in customs as desirable. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 6. Materials contain equal representation of minorities in mental and physical activities. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 7. Materials show socio-economic ranges for different minority groups. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 8. Materials reflect a balance of both traditional and nontraditional family compositions. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |

**TOTAL SCORE: _____ of 32**

## SEX EQUITY

Sex equity refers to a balance of gender roles depicted in traditional and nontraditional settings.

| Criteria | Degree criterion is met | | | | | Needs/Comments |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Completely | To some degree | | | Not at all | |
| | | 75% | 50% | 25% | | |
| 1. Materials contain equal illustrations and portrayals of males and females in occupations/ activities. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 2. Materials maintain a balance of traditional and nontraditional male and female roles. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 3. Materials contain neutral language (e.g., people, persons, men and women, they). | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 4. Materials portray both sexes in parenting activities with families. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 5. Materials contain no demeaning labels or role stereotypes. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 6. Materials show equal representation of males and females in mental and physical activities. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |

**TOTAL SCORE:** _____ **of 24**

## DISTRICT-SPECIFIC CRITERIA

District-specific criteria include any additional requirements an individual district wants to make.

| Criteria | Degree criterion is met | | | | | Needs/Comments |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Completely | To some degree | | | Not at all | |
| | | 75% | 50% | 25% | | |
| 1. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 2. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 3. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 4. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 5. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 6. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |

**TOTAL SCORE:** ____

| Summary of Curricula Analyses | | Goals and Objectives (32) | Content (36) | Instructional Methodologies (16) | Learning Opportunities (16) | Materials (40) | Time (8) | Evaluation (16) | Cultural Equity (32) | Sex Equity (24) | District-Specific Criteria | TOTAL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Curriculum Title** | **Grade** | | | | | | | | | | | |
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## Further Reading

*Drug Prevention: Curriculum and Resource Review*
National Federation of Parents for Drug-Free Youth
8730 Georgia Avenue, Suite 200
Silver Spring, MD 20910

*Criteria for Assessing Alcohol Education Programs*
California Department of Education
Publications Sales
P.O. Box 271
Sacramento, CA 95802

*Guidelines for School-Based Alcohol and Drug Abuse Prevention Programs*
California Department of Education
Publications Sales
P.O. Box 271
Sacramento, CA 95802

*Curricula and Programs for Drug and Alcohol Education*
Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory
101 S.W. Main Street, Suite 500
Portland, OR 97204

*Schools and Drugs: A Guide to Drug and Alcohol Abuse Prevention Curricula and Programs*
Crime Prevention Center
Office of the Attorney General
1515 K Street, Suite 511
Sacramento, CA 94244-2550

*Report to Congress and the White House on the Nature and Effectiveness of Federal, State, and Local Drug Prevention/Education Programs*
U.S. Department of Educatiion
400 Maryland Avenue, S.W.
Washington, DC 20202

# SUMMARY

While each of the four trends examined here is certainly unique both in terms of its societal impact and in the schools' response to it, there are some conclusions that can be made across topics. These include the following:

- Each issue has been of ongoing concern to society as a whole and to educators in particular for the entire 30-year period reviewed.
- With time, schools have developed more comprehensive approaches. For example, programs for language minority students have expanded from solely instruction in English to include instruction in the home language, bilingual education, parent involvement and infusion into the general curriculum.
- With time, schools have moved from creating many individual responses to trying to implement a more focused, shared vision.
- Responses have reflected the social mores of the times. This can be seen by the feeling in early programs for pregnant teens that a moral issue was at stake, by the assumption in early alcohol education programs that drinking was socially acceptable, by the desire to include Black English in ESL programs of the 1970s and the idealism of the Great Society that the devastations of child poverty could be readily reversed.
- Schools have gotten more involved as the federal government has gotten involved. Clearly, this was due both to legal mandate and an influx of funding for programs. This linkage is especially evident in the area of teen pregnancy where many schools refused to even acknowledge the problem until Title IX forced them to do so.
- The emphasis on evaluation which appeared in all areas in the 1970s can similarly be traced to the federal government. Again, this trend is attributable both to legal requirements (such as the Title I TIERS effort) and to set-asides of monies for this purpose.
- The first results of evaluation were almost always negative. Attempts to build on what was good about programming came later. Whether this phenomenon is due to the fact that first assessments are bound to uncover inconsistencies and shortcomings or the nature of program evaluations and evaluators is not clear. Yet, this same trend emerged in each of the four areas examined.
- A fully successful response by the schools was not demonstrated in any of the areas examined. Although in each area, strategies and approaches have been developed that are recognized as exemplary, no one seems ready to call the schools' work complete. Perhaps this is an inevitable circumstance when dealing with dynamic trends. It can also be considered a positive sign that schools do not rest on their successes, but are ever striving to improve themselves to benefit the children they serve.

Thirty years have witnessed great changes in society and concomitant changes in the schools. ERIC provides the reader with a living history of these events.

# ADDITIONAL READINGS IN ERIC

## TREND 1: THE INCREASE IN CHILDREN AND FAMILIES LIVING IN POVERTY

- (ED376263) *The Unfulfilled Mission of Title I/Chapter 1 Programs.*
  ERIC Clearinghouse on Urban Education, 1994, 70 pages.

- (ED358514) *Federal Policy Options for Improving the Education of Low-Income Students. Congressional Testimony.*
  The Rand Corporation, 1993, 24 pages.

- (ED330448) *Chapter 1: Does the Model Matter?*
  Northwest Regional Educational Lab., 1990, 5 pages.

- (ED327356) *A Practioner's Sourcebook: Effective Educational Practices in Chapter 1 Programs in Maine, New Hampshire and Vermont.*
  Maine State Dept. of Educational and Cultural Services, Augusta; New Hampshire State Dept. of Education, Concord; Vermont State Dept. of Education, Montpelier, 1984, 216 pages.

- (ED325268) *Principles of Successful Chapter 1 Programs: A Guidebook for Rural Educators.*
  Far West Lab. for Educational Research and Development, 1989, 55 pages.

- (ED324799) *Equity in School District Finances and Chapter 1 Programs.*
  S. Drazen, 1990, 20 pages.

- (ED109276) *Compensatory Education and Early Adolescence: Reviewing Our National Strategy. Research Report.*
  Stanford Research Institute, 1975, 142 pages.

- (ED104557) *Compensatory Education: Some Research Issues.*
  Nat'l Inst. Of Education (DHEW), Office of Educational Equity, 1974, 66 pages.

- (ED095667) *The Use of Performance Criteria to Allocate Compensatory Education Funds.*
  Stanford Research Institute, 1974, 400 pages.

- (ED088588) *Parent Involvement in Compensatory Education Programs.*
  Stanford Research Institute, 1973, 107 pages.

- ((ED086755) *America's Educationally Neglected: A Progress Report on Compensatory Education. Annual Report to the President and the Congress.*
  National Advisory Council on the Education of Disadvantaged Children, 1973, 109 pages.

- (ED085439) *Compensatory Education: What Works to Help Disadvantaged Pupils. Education USA, Special Report Series.*
  National School Public Relations Association, 1973, 67 pages.

## TREND 2: THE INFLUX OF CHILDREN AND FAMILIES WHOSE HOME LANGUAGE IS NOT ENGLISH

- (ED379909) *Questions and Answers About Bilingual Education. Preguntas y Respuestas Acerca de la Educación Bilingüe.*
  Intercultural Development Research Association, 1993, 53 pages.

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- (ED357628) *The Rights of Limited English Proficient Students: A Handbook for Parents and Community Advocates.*
  META (Multicultural Education, Training and Advocacy), Inc., [1993], 52 pages.

- (ED305216) *Bilingual Education and the American Dream: A Bridge or a Barrier?*
  H. Curiel, 1988, 22 pages.

- (ED251257) *Major Findings on the Effectiveness of Bilingual Education.*
  T. Reyna, 1984, 16 pages.

- (ED243993) *Beyond the Myths: Title VII and Bilingual Education in the United States.*
  National Council of La Raza, 1983, 18 pages.

- (ED235294) *The Federal Law of Bilingual Education.*
  Columbia University, 1981, 73 pages.

- (ED215010) *Effectiveness of Bilingual Education: A Review of Literature.*
  Department of Education, 1981, 213 pages.

- (ED214384) *Guide to Theses and Dissertations in Bilingual Education.*
  InterAmerica Research Associates, and National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1981, 35 pages.

- (ED206192) *Strategies for the Design of Multicultural Curriculum. Bilingual Education Teacher Handbook. Volume I.*
  Boston University, 1979, 128 pages.

- (ED108328) *Federal Programs Supporting Educational Changes, Vol. 3: The Process of Change. Appendix C: Innovations in Bilingual Education.*
  The Rand Corporation, 1975, 153 pages.

- (ED050875) *Report of Survey Findings: Assessment of Needs of Bilingual Education Programs.*
  National Consortia for Bilingual Education, 1971, 86 pages.

- (ED030099) *The Federal Investment in Bilingual Education.*
  R. Pucinski, 1969, 11 pages.

## TREND 3: THE HIGH RATE OF TEENAGE PREGNANCY AND PARENTHOOD

- (ED388456) *Goals 2000 and Pregnant and Parenting Teens: Making Education Reform Attainable for Everyone.*
  Council of Chief State School Officers, 1995, 52 pages.

- (ED345152) *Teenage Pregnancy and Parenthood Issues under Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972.*
  Office for Civil Rights (ED), 1991, 23 pages.

- (ED295106) *Teenage Pregnancy: Issues and Strategies for School Counselors.*
  G. Rolle, and others, 1987, 13 pages.

- (ED289943) *Hispanic Teenage Pregnancy: Overview and Implications.*
  National Council of La Raza, 1987, 22 pages.

- (ED275972) *Teenage Pregnancy: 500,000 Births a Year but Few Tested Programs.*
  General Accounting Office, 1986, 60 pages.

- (ED216263) *A Title IX Perspective on the Schools' Response to Teenage Pregnancy and Parenthood.*
  The Rand Corporation, 1981, 77 pages.

- (ED108363) *Student Marriage and Pregnancy. A Legal Memorandum.*
  National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1973, 7 pages.

- (ED105359) *Counseling the Pregnant Teenager. Search Light: Relevant Resources in High Interest Areas.*
  ERIC Clearinghouse on Counseling and Personnel Services, 1974, 12 pages.

- (ED094291) *Educational Services for Schoolage Parents. Resource Manual.*
  Office of Education, New Brunswick [NJ] Board of Education, 1974, 82 pages.

- (ED070975) *The Pregnant Public School Student: Legal Implications for School Administrators.*
  R. Childs, 1972, 24 pages.

- (ED070187) *Model Components of Comprehensive Programs for Pregnant School-age Girls.*
  Consortium on Early Childbearing and Childrearing, 1972, 20 pages.

- (ED065800) *Pregnant Adolescents: A Review of the Literature with Abstracts, 1960-1970.*
  Pittsburgh University, 1971, 81 pages.

- (ED041300) *Adolescents as Mothers: Results of a Program for Low Income Pregnant Teen-Agers with Some Emphasis Upon Infants' Development.*
  American Orthopsychiatric Association, 1970, 9 pages.

## TREND 4: THE WIDESPREAD USE OF TOBACCO, ALCOHOL, AND OTHER DRUGS BY CHILDREN AND YOUTH

- (ED374375) *Facts on Adolescent Substance Abuse.*
  Rutgers, the State University [NJ], 1994, 4 pages.

- (ED360592) *Alcohol and Other Drugs Resource Guide.*
  National Clearinghouse for Alcohol and Drug Information, 1992, 24 pages.

- (ED326772) *Drug Education: School-Based Programs Seen as Useful but Impact Unknown. Report to the Chairman, Committee on Governmental Affairs, U.S. Senate.*
  General Accounting Office, 1990, 32 pages.

- (ED322429) *Anti-Drug Education Act of 1990.* House of Representatives, 101st Congress, 2nd Session.
  Congress of the U.S., House Committee on Education and Labor, 1990, 21 pages.

- (ED298382) *Preventing Alcohol and Other Drug Problems Through Drug Education. Policy Bulletin No. 3.*
  Consortium on Educational Policy Studies, 1988, 7 pages.

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